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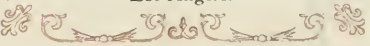
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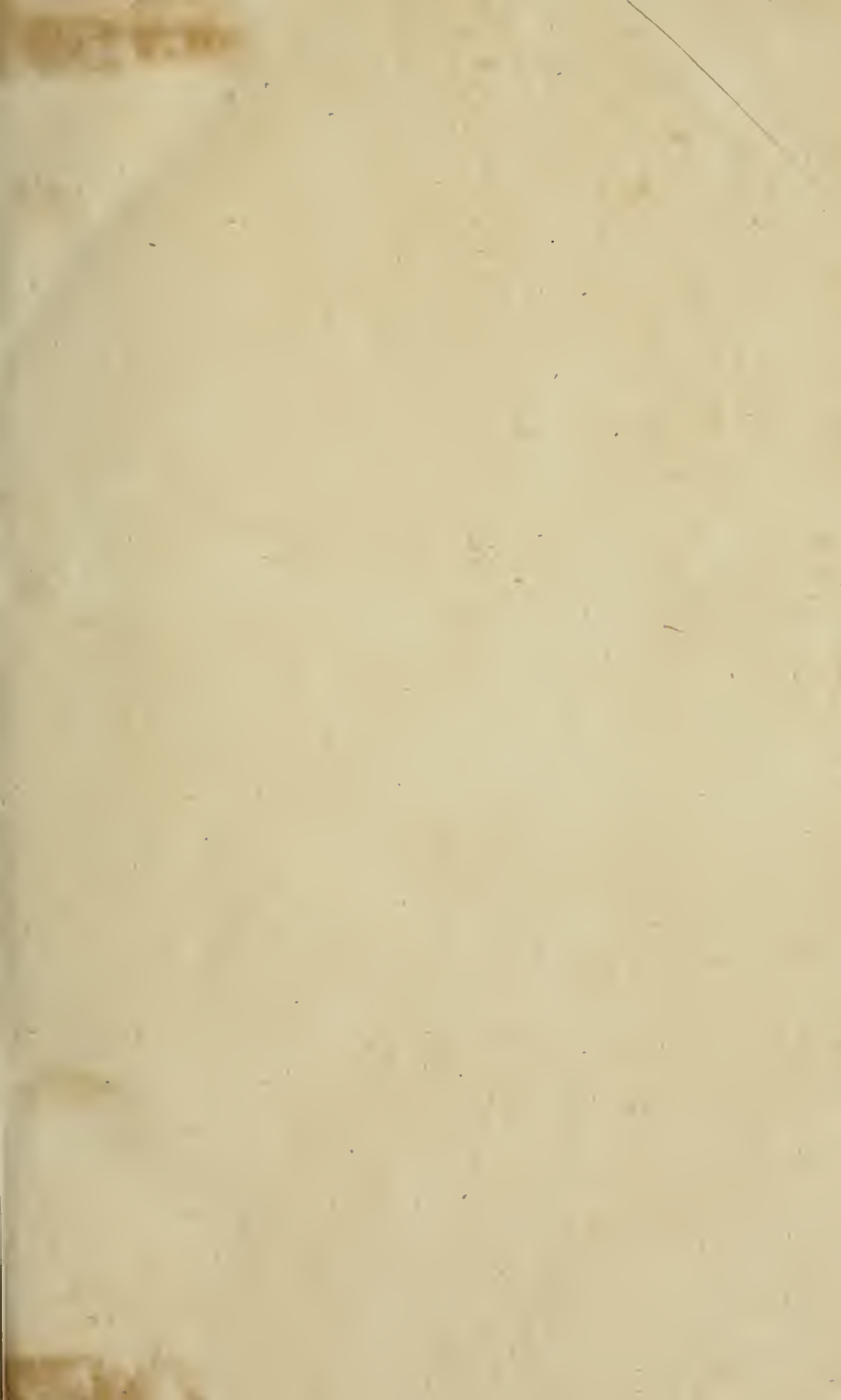


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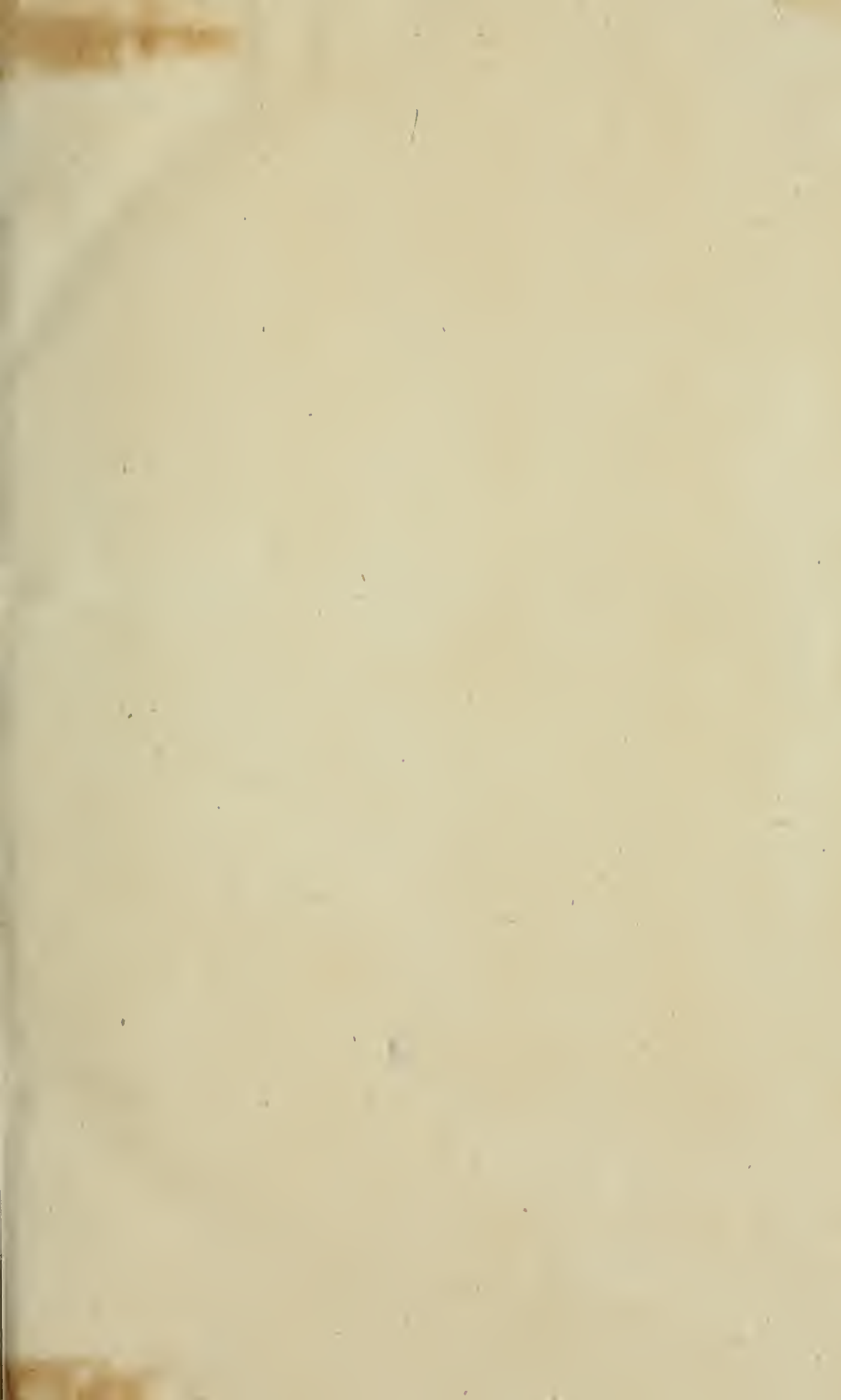
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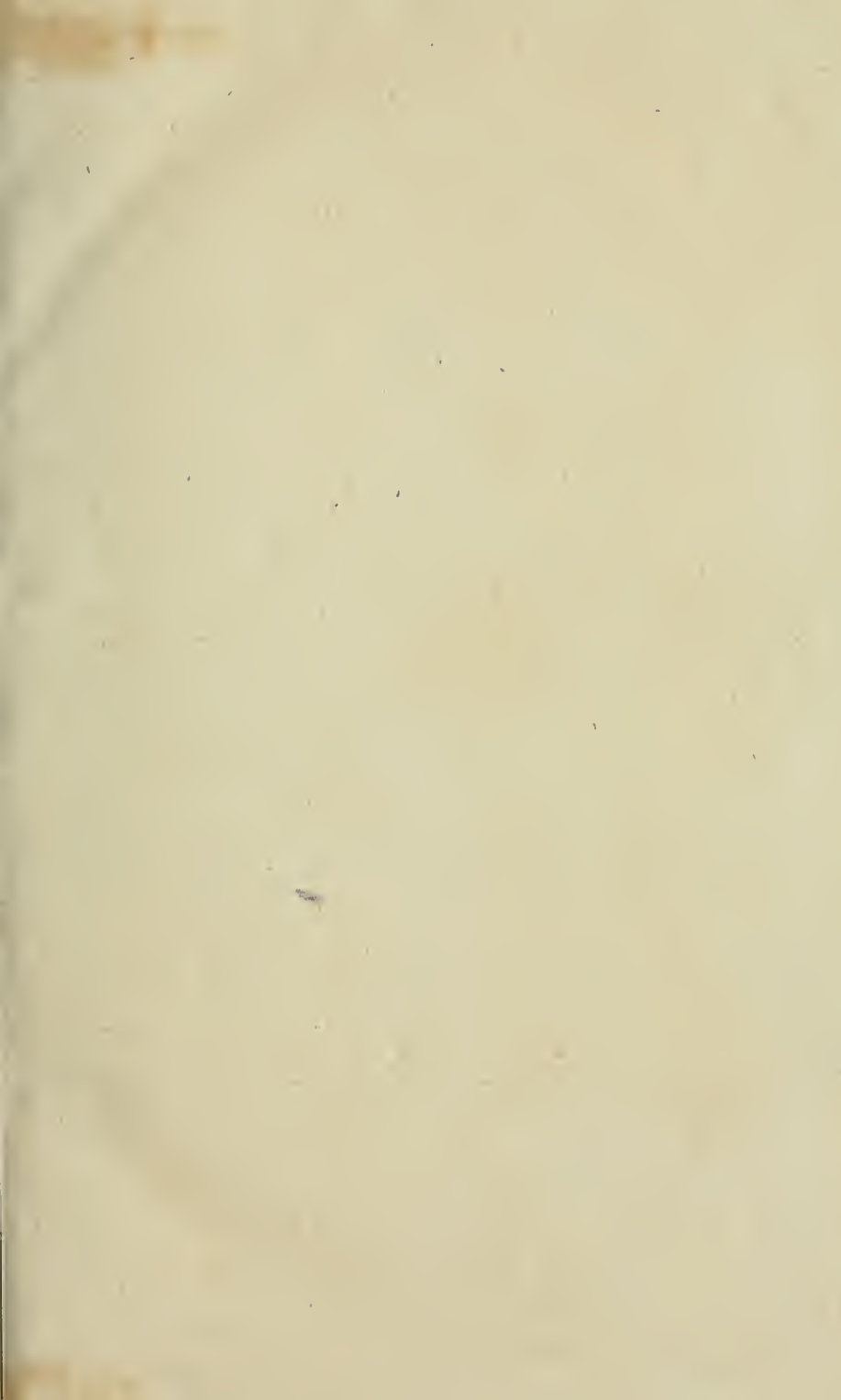


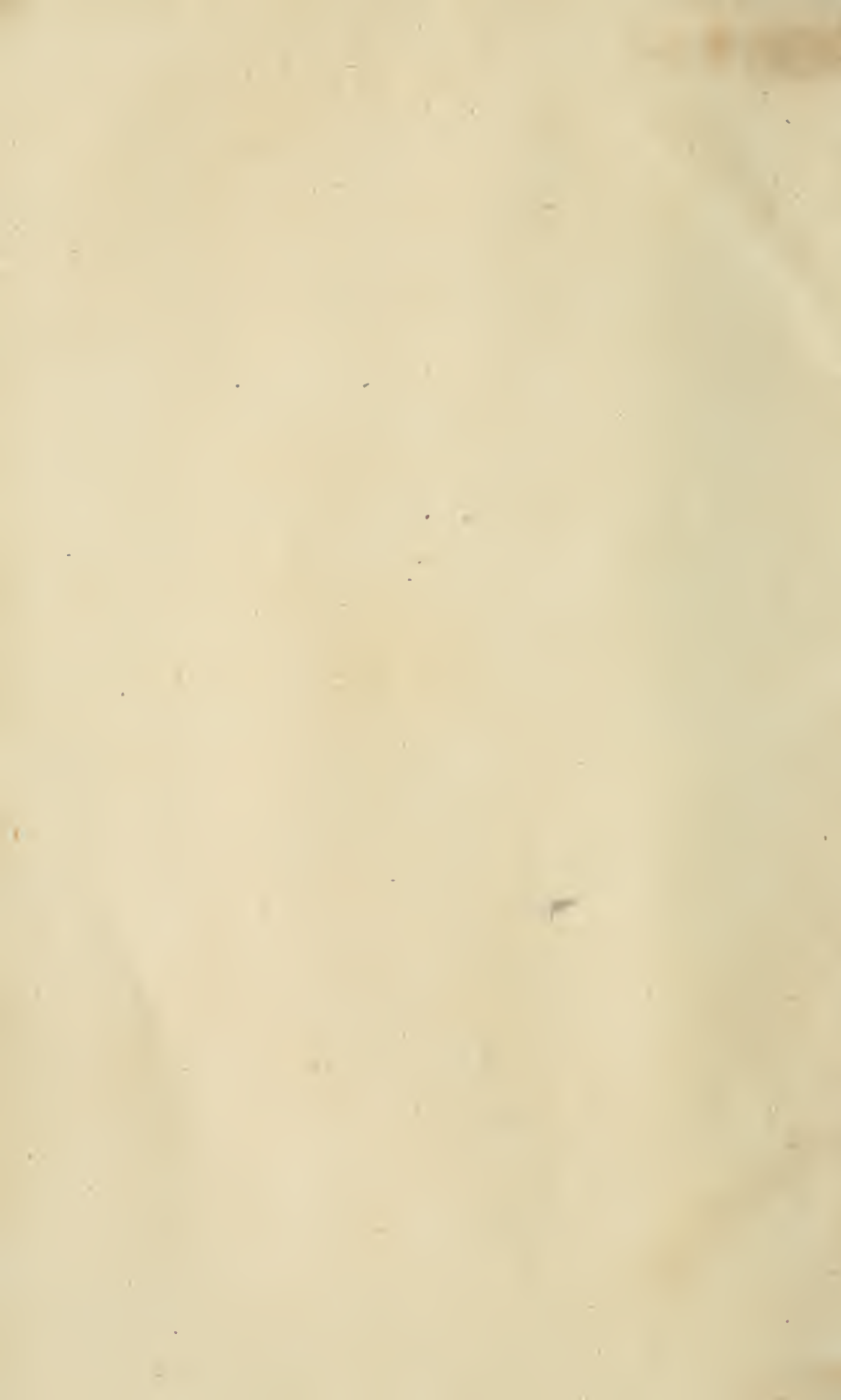












THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE:

Exhibiting a View of the
NATURAL AND CIVIL HISTORY
OF THE SEVERAL
COUNTRIES and KINGDOMS:

THEIR PRESENT
CONSTITUTION and FORM of GOVERNMENT; their
CUSTOMS, MANNERS, LAWS, and RELIGION; their
ARTS, SCIENCES, MANUFACTURES, and COMMERCE;
their MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS, PUBLIC TREA-
TIES, and POLITICAL INTERESTS and CONNEXIONS.

To which is prefixed,
AN INTRODUCTORY DISCOURSE on the
Principles of POLITY and GOVERNMENT.

By M. E. TOTZE,

Late Secretary to the University of Gottingen, and now Professor of
History in the University of Butzow, and Duchy of Mecklenburg.

Translated from the GERMAN

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And Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries.

V O L. III.

L O N D O N,
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MDCCLXX.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. VII.
OF DENMARK.

SECT. I.

DENMARK signifies no more than ^{Name,} the country of the Danes (1). The name is of great antiquity, at least was used in the 9th century (2). In the middle ages Denmark was usually expressed in Latin by Dacia; and not only foreigners, but

(1) The word Mark imports, both in Danish and German, a frontier, a field, or part of a country; and in this last sense it bears the names of Finmark, and Lapmark. In the old Islandic writings Denmark is called Danavelde, as Sweden is Sviaveld. Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. ch. i. Mallet. Hist. de Danem. Tom. III. p. 29.

(2) On the tomb of king Gormo, who reigned in the IXth century, is engraved in Runic characters, Tanmuark, and elsewhere Tanmuark. Pontoppid. P. III.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

the kings of Denmark themselves used his appellation, both in their titles and seals (*a*).

S E C T. II.

Situation,
boundaries,
and extent.

The kingdom of Denmark lies between 54 deg. 15. min. and 57, 42. north lat. and 23. 55. and 28, 43. east long. Southward it confines on Germany, and particularly on Holstein, from which towards the east it is separated by the Levensaw, and towards the west by the Eider (3). Westward it is surrounded by the north sea, northward by the Cattegat (4), and eastward by the Belt (5) or the Baltic (6): the whole country contains 856 Danish square miles (*b*).

S E C T. III.

Air and
weather.

The weather is pretty moderate, without any very severe cold in winter, or intense and lasting heats in summer. The air is

(*a*) Pontoppid. P. III.

(3) This river thus forms the boundaries between Denmark and Germany; and over the Holstein gate at Reinburg, through which town it runs, are these words: "Eidora Romani Terminus Imperii." This boundary was settled at the peace between Charles the Great and king Hemming.

(4) The Sinus Codranus; for the origin of the name of Cattegat, see Pontoppid. B. I. p. 314.

(5) The water between Jutland and Fuhnen is called the Little Belt, and that between Fuhnen and Zealand the Great Belt, or only the Belt.

(6) It is remarkable, that the North-Sea is continually gaining on the land, but the Baltic receding from it. Pontoppid. Vol. I. p. 318.

(*b*) Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. ch. ii.

damp,

damp, particularly in spring, but so purified by the winds, that up the country it is generally very healthy, though along the coasts something noxious, as more exposed to the fogs, and the saline vapours of the sea (c).

S E C T. IV. .

Denmark is for the most part a level country, so that, excepting Himmelberg and Bouberg in Jutland, and Créideberg, or Chalk-hill, in the island of Moen, very few of the eminences can be properly called mountains (d). Large and navigable rivers it has none, the country not affording space for a long course. This want is in some measure supplied by the many bays, which are of great convenience to the inhabitants for trade and intercourse (e). Fields and rivers.

S E C T. V.

Denmark produces all the necessaries and many of the conveniencies of life in great plenty; and some things superabundantly. In the animal kingdom we find large and beautiful horses, horned cattle (7), sheep, Fertility.

(c) Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. II. ch. i.

(d) Ibid. ch. ii.

(e) Ibid. c. vii. p. 335.

(7) These, together with the best horses, are chiefly bred in Jutland, where the exportation of them makes a profitable article.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

(8) and swine in great numbers, and very good ; likewise all kinds of deer, hares and rabbits, poultry, and wild-fowl (9) ; with great variety of fish, particularly sea-fish (10).

The vegetable kingdom is not indeed so liberal, some parts having little or no wood, not even for fuel (11) ; though on the other hand it affords wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, pease, beans, lentils, turnip-feed, cumin, mustard-feed, and some in such quantities as to be exported ; it likewise produces flax, hemp, and hops, but not sufficient for home consumption. The French colony at Fridericia in Jutland, have met with great success in their culture of tobacco, which, however, is used only by the lower class (*f*).

Denmark was formerly thought to be quite destitute of minerals, but lately it has

(8) The Danish sheep, however, are but small, and their wool very indifferent, except that of Eiderstadt, which, next to the Spanish and English is the best in Europe. Pontoppid. Vol. I. p. 387.

(9) An extensive account of these is to be met with in Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. II. ch. i.

(10) Between two and three hundred years ago, the leprosy came to be a common distemper in Denmark, as it is now in the western point of Norway and Iceland, and owing to eating too much fish ; but that food is no longer in such plenty as formerly. Pontoppid. Vol. I. p. 409.

(11) This want is supplied by turf, and in some parts even by straw. Pontoppid. Vol. I. p. 207.

(*f*) Ibid. B. II. ch. viii.

D E N M A R K.

5

been found to contain mines even of gold and silver; several places abound in iron, and particularly that called moor-iron, from its ore being dug out of moors (g).

Other fossils of the growth of Denmark are salt-petre, vitriol, allum, amber, several useful earths, as fuller's earth, bole, porcelaine-clay (12), very fine chalk, tripoly, with some dyes (b); stones of all kinds as lime, marble, touch-stone, mill-stone, slate, pit-coal, spat, agate (i); a mineral, however, long wished for but not yet discovered is salt (13).

S E C T. VI.

The kingdom of Denmark includes the Division of Denmark. islands of Zealand, Fuhnen, Langland, Laaland, Falster, Bornholm, Moen, with some lesser islands, the Peninsula of Jutland, and the dutchy of Sleswick.

(g) Pontoppid. B. II. Vol. I. cap. v.

(12) This is found in the island of Bornholm, and one Tournier a Frenchman has made a complete set of table furniture of it. Ibid. Vol. I. p: 394.

(b) Ibid. ch iv.

(i) Ibid. chap. iii.

(13) The country-folks on the sea-coast have a shift of making salt with tang, or sea-weed, but which, besides its dingy colour, is rather bitter than salt. The inhabitants of some parts of Sleswick boil salt from a saline earth, which they get out of the sea, and under the name of Friesland salt it fetches no mean price; but this likewise is bitterish. Ibid. Vol. I. p 298.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

These countries, Sleswick excepted, are divided into seven governments called Stiftsamptstæder, and over each is a stiftsamptstæder. (14). In the islands are three stiftsamptstæder, namely, 1. Zealand, to which likewise belong the islands of Bornholm and Moen. 2. Fuhnen, to which is annexed Langeland. 3. Laaland and Falster: and in Jutland, four; 4. Allborg, 5. Wiborg, 6. Aarhus, and 7. Ripen.

The dutchy of Sleswick is administered by a governor, who likewise presides over the king of Denmark's part of Holstein.

S E C T. VII.

Norway.

The kingdom of Norway, by the Danes called Norge, and by the Swedes Norrige, has been united under one sovereignty with Denmark very near 400 years: it extends from 57, 47. to 71, 30 north lat. its length being in a direct line 202, and by the winding of the coasts 350 Norway miles; whereas its breadth is in most parts not

(14) This appellation is derived from the constitutions made at the time of the Reformation; the present stiftsamptstæder were formerly bishopricks. Christian III. having, in 1536, removed the Catholic bishops from their campts, or dioceses, a king's officer, called Befalningsmand, was placed over every diocese; he exercised the temporal rights and jurisdiction of the bishops, and collected their incomes; and afterwards was distinguished by the name of stiftsamptstæder, or steward of the Diocese. Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, Part II. p. 351.

above

above 30, 40, or 50, and in some but 6 such miles. The winters in the east, and still more in the northern parts, are extremely severe, but along the western coast very tolerable: the summer's heat is greater than might be imagined, which is partly owing to the length of the days, and the strong reflections of the sun from the mountains and rocks.

The country is wild and barren, and the greater part of it over-run with mountains, marshes, and deserts. The principal chain of mountains is the Kolen, which, under different names, runs through all Norway from north to south. From these mountains issue innumerable springs, streams, and rivers, the last of which are all called Elven.

Some parts, however, afford good pasture, with plenty of horned cattle; but which, like the sheep, are very small. The Norway horses, though deficient in size, are well shaped, strong, and swift. The country abounds in game of all kinds, and its forests and mountains harbour many beasts of prey.

The adjacent sea, with the many bays and rivers, affords plenty of fish; the last particularly swarm with salmon, which, with many other kinds, and some thou-

land tons of herrings, are exported every year.

The vast forests supply immense quantities of timber, chiefly oaks and firs, with which a considerable trade is carried on. But in grain Norway by no means answers the necessary demands of the inhabitants; besides what little it does afford, is often spoiled whilst standing, either by the sharpness of a sudden cold, or the too great heat of the summer, or by unseasonable rains.

Norway's greatest wealth consists in its metals. It was not till under Christian III. that the mines came to be properly worked; and ever since they have yielded great profits in iron, copper, silver and even gold (15).

Magnets have been found here and there, together with some gems, as agate and beautiful marbles, as jasper, granite (*k*).

Norway is divided into four Stiftampters, Christiania, or Aggerhuus, Christianland, Bergen, and Drontheim.

S E C T. VIII.

Iceland.

The island of Iceland was peopled and cultivated towards the close of the ninth century, by some Norwegian emigrants,

(15) Of this gold, though in no great quantity, Christian V. and Christian V. made ducats. Holberg, c. xii. §. 42, 43.

(*k*) See Busching's Geography, Vol. I.

flying from the tyranny of Harold Harfagar king of Norway. The colony formed itself into an aristocratical government, which subsisted a considerable time, till reduced by Haquin V. king of Norway; and not long after Iceland came under the Danish dominion, together with Norway (*1*). It lies between 63 and 70 deg. north lat. and its length from S. E. to N. W. extends about 120 German miles; its greatest breadth is 150, and its smallest 12 of the same miles. Its name is owing to the masses of ice driving down from the northern ocean. The island is a heap of rocks and mountains, of which Hecla is particularly mentioned by geographers, as once a volcano, tho' for some years past it has ceased to emit fire. But in April 1766, it renewed its explosions, emitting smoak and fire, with sand and stones of an extraordinary bigness, accompanied as usual with an earthquake; and other burning mountains have broken out. The soil is full of sulphur and salt-petre, which sometimes taking fire, is attended with deplorable ravages, as particularly in 1729. Its principal vegetables, for it affords no trees, nor corn, are here and there some blackberry and juniper bushes. All the

(1) See Mallet's Introduction to the History of Denmark, Vol. I. c. ii.

flour is brought from Denmark, but this is only within the reach of the more wealthy; the poor live on dried fish and flesh, and make a sort of bread of sea weeds. Some spots near the rivers yield very good pasture, and in these the Icelanders breed horned cattle and sheep in middling plenty. The horses, which like the other cattle, are very small, are left to range about and shift for themselves. There are no beasts of prey, or for the chase, except foxes, which from being in summer blue or grey, become white in winter; a few are black; but with wild fowl (16), and birds of prey (17), Iceland may be said to swarm.

Its many bays, together with the ocean, afford vast quantities of fish, as herring, sole, whiting, haddock, cod (18) of several kinds, holybuts (19), and small whales (*m*).

The Faro islands, of which there are twenty-five, lying in 61 and 62 deg. north

(16) Among them is the eider, so famous for its down.

(17) Particularly falcons, reckoned the best in Europe, they are either grey, grey and white, or all white; the last are accounted the best. Anderson's Iceland.

(18) Of which the people make stockfish. Ibid.

(19) It is nothing uncommon for one of these to weigh four hundred pound; whereas in the North-sea they are never known to exceed an hundred and twenty, or an hundred and thirty pound. Of these fishes are made raff and reckeling, so well known in Lower Saxony. Ibid.

(*m*) Ibid. & Holberg, c. ii. p. 54.

lat. and something more to the south-west than Iceland; these likewise belong to Norway, and produce plenty of grain, with great numbers of sheep. Among its sea-fowl is also found the Eider.

Iceland and these islands are under a Stifamtman, who being continually absent, public affairs are managed by deputies.

S E C T. IX.

Greenland was discovered about the end Greenland. of the tenth century, by Eric Torwaldson of Iceland (20), and an Icelandic colony founded in it. Christianity was planted there under the patronage of Olof Tryggesson king of Norway, and, on its propagation, two towns called Albe and Garde, were built, and the latter made a bishop's see. In process of time, it became subject to Norway, and the Normans even carried on a considerable trade thither; which in the year 1348, came to a period, the Black Death, as it was called, having about this time swept away so great a part of the human species in Norway, that the voyages to Greenland were discontinued, and little remembrance remained even of the country itself. At length Christian III. sent some

(20) He called the country so from its verdure and pleasant appearance; it lies to the northwest of Iceland.

ships

ships thither, but they could not find the land. Frederick II. made another trial, with no better success. Christian IV. sent ships on the same discovery no less than four times, yet these likewise returned re infecta. A Greenland trading company, however, was formed at Copenhagen, and in the year 1636, they sent out two ships, who reached Davis's-streights, but returning without any advantage, the company dropped all farther enterprizes. It was thought that the old course from Iceland to Greenland must have been stopped by the drifts of ice. The coast, to which the streights of Davis afford a passage, was afterwards called New-Greenland, by way of distinction from the former. In the year 1721, under Frederick IV. and by means of Mr. Egede, a Norwegian ecclesiastic, who had the conversion of the Greenlanders exceedingly at heart, another Greenland company was erected at Bergen in Norway; this company entered on a trade to New-Greenland, but by great losses was obliged to drop it; so that the king himself took the work in hand. In 1728, he sent a number of people with all necessaries, and even cattle and horses, for settling a perpetual colony; but in 1731, they were ordered home again: however, in the year 1733, the
Green-

Greenland trade was again taken in hand, and the mission which Mr. Egede's resolute zeal had begun with very promising success, was continued (21). The Danish company of general trade, pursuant to a charter obtained for that purpose, now carries on an exclusive Greenland trade and whale fishery, and several colonies have likewise been established there (*n*).

New Greenland begins at the 59th deg. north lat. and has been discovered westward as far as the 78th; but, whether it be an island or a peninsula, is not yet known, and it is likewise made a question whether it belongs to Europe or America.

It produces very few vegetables of use, and scarce any wood, but has whole mountains of amianthus, the flax of which is long, soft, and very white. No grain thrives there, and the deer and hares are extremely small. Of sea-fowl it has plenty, and still more fish, and of various kinds. Its coasts are noted for the whale fishery (*o*).

(21) The Moravians have likewise sent missionaries to Greenland, who have carried on their affairs better than the Danish. State of the Arts and Sciences in the Danish dominions.

(*n*) Holberg, ch. viii.

(*o*) Anderson's Account of Greenland.

S E C T. X.

Holstein,
Oldenburg,
and Del-
menhorst.

The king of Denmark is likewise possessed of a part of the dutchy of Holstein, and the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst; but these are fiefs of the empire. The former came to the royal house by means of king Christian I. and the latter was an acquisition of Christian V. Both are fruitful in corn and cattle, and under a distinct governor.

S E C T. XI.

Dependen-
cies in Asia.

The Danes have likewise, by their maritime trade, acquired territories and settlements in the other three parts of the world. In Asia on the coast of Coromandel, they have the town of Tranquebar, with its precinct, containing fifteen villages, which being sold to them by the king of Tanfchaur, they built there a fort, to which they gave the name of Danborg (*p*). In the year 1705, king Frederick IV. sent some missionaries to Tranquebar, for the conversion of the inhabitants; and that pious undertaking is still carried on with very great success along the coast of Malabar (*q*).

(*p*) Holberg, chap. viii.

(*q*) Id. chap. xv.

On the coast of Guinea they have Fort In Africa. Christiansborg, which was built by themselves 1659 (*r*).

In America, the English, in 1672, transf- In America.ferred to them the island of St. Thomas, to which belong St. John, and some other small islands of the Caribbees. In 1733, they likewise purchased from France the island of St. Croix (*s*).

S E C T. XII.

According to the relations of the ancient Sketch of the history of Denmark. northern historians, Odin, an Asiatic monarch, whom they represent as a warrior, prophet, and forcerer (*t*), and equally eminent in those three different characters, made himself master of the whole north (22): upon his decease his son Skiold reigned in that country, which was afterwards called Denmark. His descendants whom the genealogists from him call Skioldungers, sat on the throne of this kingdom during some centuries in an uninterrupted succession;

(*r*) Holberg, chap. viii.

(*s*) Id. ch. viii.

(*t*) Vid. Torfæi Antiq. Univ. Septentr. Lib. II. cap. ii.

(22) Concerning the æra of these events writers are not agreed; some placing them seventy years before the birth of Christ; and others above one hundred years after. Some, in order to reconcile this very great difference, maintain, that there were several, or, at least, two Odins. Vid. Torfæus, lib. II. ch. iii. p. 113.

but

but king Rolf Kraks dying, it became divided into several small parcels, with each its distinct king or sovereign. However, Ibar Widfadmi, a descendant of Skiold, and king of Schonen, gradually mastering the other petty princes, reduced both Denmark and Sweden; and those two kingdoms remained united under three of his successors Harold I. Sigurd I. and Ragnar Lodbrök: but Sigurd II. and Biorne separated them, by a partition, the first taking Denmark, and leaving Sweden to the latter.

Jutland, however, at the time of this junction, had its particular kings; and Gott-rick or Grodfrey, and his successor Hemming, waged war with the emperor Charles the Great.

Gormo, king of Denmark, grandson to Sigurd II. reunited Jutland to his kingdom. He likewise reduced the Saxons and Venedi. Henry the Fowler, emperor of Germany, made war against him, dispossessed him of his conquests, and placed a markgrave over Hethebye, (now Sleswick): but Harold II. Gormo's son, cut to pieces both the markgrave and the garrison of the German fort. This the emperor Otho I. revenged by an irruption into Jutland, and obliged king Harold and his subjects to embrace the Christian religion; but after his death his son

931.

948.

son and successor Sueno I. returned to Paganism. This prince, in conjunction with Olof Skotkonung, and Eric, a Norwegian count, conquered Norway, of which he had one third, and afterwards subdued England, where he lost his life.

His son Canute the Great, restored Christianity in Denmark: he likewise, on the death of Edmund Ironside, king of England, made himself absolute master of England, and afterwards of all Norway; Olof, a prince of the royal blood of Norway, who had recovered that kingdom, being driven from the throne. Thus Canute became sovereign of three kingdoms, which he distributed among his three sons. To the first, Harold, he gave England; to Canute or Hardaknut, the second, Denmark; and Sueno the third, who was illegitimate, had Norway, of which, however, he was soon dispossessed by Magnus, son to the above Olof. Hordaknut, after the death of his brother Harold, became king of England, but upon his dying without issue, the crown of Denmark, by virtue of an agreement, which had been made with Hardaknut, devolved to Magnus king of Norway. Thus Denmark became united under one sovereign with Norway.

But Sueno II. commonly furnamed Estrid-
 fen, from his mother Estrid, daughter to king
 Sueno I. and who, in the time of king
 Magnus, had revolted against him, after
 his death placed himself on the throne of
 1047. Denmark, and thus the two kingdoms were
 again separated. Some of his descendants
 signalized themselves by great achievements.
 Waldemar I. reduced the Venedi
 of Mecklenburg and Pomerania; and his
 son Canute VI. conquered Esthonia, and
 several countries in Germany; his brother
 Waldemar II. over-ran a great part of Li-
 vonia, Courland, and Prussia (23). But his
 intrigue with count Henry of Schwerin's
 1223. spouse, proved fatal to him, the count seiz-
 ing on his person, and keeping him three
 years a close prisoner; this confinement was
 attended with the total loss of most of
 his conquests in Livonia, Courland,
 Prussia, and Germany. His descendants
 were very unfortunate, which, among
 other causes, proceeded from the partition
 of his dominions among his sons, of whom
 Eric IV. had the kingdom; Abel, Sles-

(23) In the contest between Otho IV. and Frederic II. for the imperial crown, Waldemar II. sided with the latter; who, for his good services, confirmed him in all his father's and brother's German conquests. On this imperial charter Waldemar founded his title of king of the Slavi, which was afterwards altered to that of king of the Venedi. Holberg's History of Denmark, Vol. I. p. 275.

wick;

wick ; and Christopher's portion was Laaland and Falster. King Eric IV. was murdered by the treachery of his brother Abel, who usurped the throne, but in a revolt, was soon overtaken by a like catastrophe ^{1252.} (24). The crown then devolved to the third brother Christopher ; but both he and his son Eric V. and this prince's two sons Eric VI. and Christopher II. had all very troublesome and unfortunate reigns. The latter was for dispossessing duke Waldemar of Sleswick, then a minor ; but his guardian and uncle by the mother's side, Gerard count of Holstein, espoused his cause with such zeal, and prevailed so far with the states of Denmark, that they renounced their allegiance to king Christopher, and chose ^{1326.} Waldemar their king : their chief motive was the reunion of Sleswick with the crown, in which, however, they were disappointed (25). The kingdom was a great loser by these troubles, several provinces falling into foreign hands, particularly Sweden got Schonen, Halland, and Bleckingen.

(24) Though his descendants could not ascend the throne, they kept Sleswick, which occasioned its being a long time detached from the crown.

(25) It proved quite the reverse ; Waldemar conferred Sleswick on count Gerard as a fief, and afterwards added a clause, that Sleswick should never revert to the crown. Holberg, Vol. I. p. 400.

1333.

After the death of king Christopher, Denmark continued seven years without a king, Gerard count of Holstein, and the other proprietors, finding their advantage in such a state of affairs. But Gerard being taken off, the Danes called to the throne Waldemar III. second son to Christopher II. This prince reannexed to the kingdom, the several countries which had been dismembered from it, during the late disturbances, selling to the Teutonic order in Prussia, Esthonia, or rather his right to it, in order to raise money for that purpose. He likewise, by artful practices, brought Magnus Smeck king of Sweden to restore Schonen, Halland and Bleckingen, without any equivalent.

1340.

1375.

Waldemar III. dying without male issue, the states conferred the succession on Olaus V. only son to his daughter Margaret, married to Haquin VIII. king of Norway: thus Denmark and Norway became again united, and have ever since continued in that state (26). This young prince dying early, his mother Margaret was declared queen in both kingdoms. Having soon af-

1380.

1387.

1397.

(26) In the year 1386, died Henry, duke of Sleswick, the last of king Abel's male descendants; on which, pursuant to a former agreement, Gerard VI. count of Holstein, was invested with Sleswick.

ter brought Sweden under her dominion, she, by the union of Calmar, incorporated all the three northern kingdoms, though, in reality, it proved the cause of very great dissensions and troubles. Denmark had undoubtedly the advantage, being the residence of the sovereign, who from thence governed the other two kingdoms.

Under her successor Eric of Pomerania ^{1436.} grandson to Ingeburga, her eldest sister, the union of Calmar received several amendments and explanations: but in other respects this king's administration was so displeasing, that Sweden universally revolted, and soon after the Danes and Norwegians likewise deposed this prince. ^{1438.}

The Danes hereupon made choice of his nephew, by his sister's side, Christopher, duke of Bavaria and count Palatine of the Rhine, who was likewise soon after acknowledged by Sweden and Norway. ^{1411.}

Christopher dying without heirs, the Danes conferred the crown on Christian I. count of Oldenburg, in which settlement Norway readily joined; but it was not without great difficulty that Sweden acceded to the choice. Christian united to Denmark the island of Gothland, which had always belonged to Sweden, having made a compact for that purpose with the late ^{1448.}

king Eric, as its proprietor. On the death of Adolphus VIII. last duke of Sleswick and count of Holstein, Sleswick reverted to the crown. But the king having likewise a claim to Holstein, so effectually practised with the states of both countries, that they elected him their sovereign (27). The emperor Frederick III. at his request raised Holstein to a duchy, and with it incorporated Ditmarsh; but on the other hand, Sweden revolted from him and he was never able to recover it.

His son John quietly succeeded him in Denmark and Norway, but to the crown of Sweden he was obliged to fight his way. The people of Ditmarsh likewise refused to acknowledge him, and his expedition to reduce them miscarried: the like ill fortune attended his arms against Sweden, which had soon broke out into a fresh revolt.

Christian II. his son and successor, was more successful, so that the Swedes solemnly received him as their sovereign; but the horrid massacre committed at his coronation excited a general insurrection against

(27) Christian in return granted them several considerable privileges, particularly, the perpetual right of election, and that the two duchies should never be separated; but they never were allowed the free exercise of the right of election, and Christian IV. totally abolished it.

him,

him, and the celebrated Gustavus. Vasa, ^{1523.} for the brave defence of his country against the tyrant, was rewarded with the throne, which put a total period to the union of Calmar. Denmark itself soon after took up arms against Christian, and on his flight to the Netherlands, made choice of Frederic, duke of Holstein, his father's brother (28), to whom Norway likewise was brought to submit, though Christian had a strong party in that country.

The succession of Frederic's eldest son, Christian III. was powerfully opposed by the Roman Catholic clergy; but a war with the Lubeckers and their allies breaking out at this juncture, turned the scale in favour of his election. The re-^{1534.}formation which had been begun by his father, he happily established, and shared the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein with^{1536.} his brothers, John and Adolphus, the latter of whom was the founder of the house of^{1544.} Holstein Gottorp, and introduced into it the communion and union, as it is com-^{1547.}monly called.

Frederic II. his son, compelled the people^{1559.} of Ditmarsh to acknowledge his sove-

(28) His brother king John had made a partition of the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein with him, the government, however, still remaining in common; so that Frederic being now king, the dutchies escheated to the crown.

- reignty. He purchased the island of Oesel in Livonia, with other church-lands in that country, as a settlement for his brother-
1560. Magnus, and likewise sent him in person into Livonia, with a view to avail himself of the disturbances in that country, but the scheme proved abortive. This business of Livonia, and the king of Denmark bearing three crowns for his arms, together with the pretensions of the Danes to Sweden, and the Swedish claims to Norway, Schonon, and Gothland, brought on a war between the two kingdoms, which
1563. was concluded by the peace of Stettin. Denmark receded from its pretensions to Sweden, and Sweden did the like with regard to Norway, Schonon, and Gothland. King Frederic farther obtained
1570. from the emperor Maximilian II. the reversion of the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, for himself and his cousins the dukes of Holstein.
1611. Under Christian IV. his son and successor, a fresh war broke out with Sweden, on account of the three crowns in the arms of Denmark, and Charles IX. king of Sweden assuming the title of king of Lapland; but
1613. it was terminated by the peace of Siorod to the advantage of Denmark. Christian afterwards concluded with Holstein the pro-
1623. longed

longed union, as it was called ; and in the thirty years war took up arms in defence of the Germanic liberties, and the Protestant religion against the emperor Ferdinand II. but not with a success answerable to his good intentions. He was still more unfortunate in the third Swedish war, being obliged, at the peace of Bromsebroe, to give up Jemtland, Herendalen, with the islands of Gothland, for ever, and Halland for thirty years.

Frederic III. his son, who met with some difficulty in obtaining the crown, entered into alliances with several powers against Sweden, and commenced hostilities against king Charles Gustavus, who, at that time was engaged in a war in Poland. But this rupture proved extremely detrimental to Denmark, for at the peace of Copenhagen he ceded, Schonon, Halland, Blackenden, Bohuslen, to the crown of Sweden : and to the duke of Holstein, Gottorp, with the sovereignty over his part of Sleswick : on the other hand, he had the singular good fortune, that the states of the kingdom voluntarily invested him with an unlimited prerogative and an hereditary right in the succession to the crown.

Christian V. his son, on the failure of the male line of the counts of Oldenburgh,

acquired the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst. Lewis XIV. having invaded the Low Countries, and Sweden siding with the French, he entered into an alliance with Brandenburg and the United Provinces against Sweden. In this war he made several conquests; but at the peace, France obliged him to restore them all. He endeavoured to recover Sleswic from the house of Holstein Gottorp, but could not accomplish his point. His son Frederic IV. had the same view, which he endeavoured to bring about by means of the king of Poland and the czar of Muscovy; but the house of Holstein Gottorp being supported by Sweden, England, and the United Provinces, maintained its right. This difference, apparently inconsiderable, gave rise to the great northern war, in which the king afterwards declared against Sweden. The admission of the Swedish troops into Toningen, gave him a pretence to consider it as a violation of neutrality; upon which he made himself master of the duke of Holstein's part of Sleswick; and at the peace with Sweden had the possession of it guaranteed by that very crown, and afterwards by several other powers: thus was that country again united to the crown of Denmark.

Under the succeeding kings Christian VI. ^{1730.} and Frederic V. Denmark enjoyed a longer ^{1746.} peace than any state in Europe; and in this happy interval, its domestic prosperity received considerable improvements, from the noble zeal of those two monarchs in promoting manufactures, trade, and navigation, with all useful arts and sciences: Frederic V. ^{1766.} was succeeded by his son Christian VII.

S E C T. XIII.

The Danes, like the generality of the northern people, are large and robust, with fresh ruddy complexions; the women very fair, and well shaped. Their nutritive foods, and eating much flesh, render them sanguine; but it is owing to the heavy and damp sea air that they are somewhat slow in their motions. This, however, is compensated by assiduity and perseverance in accomplishing what they have once undertaken. Their resolution and intrepidity have at all times been sufficiently displayed, in achievements both by sea and land.

Character of
the Danes.

Among the civil virtues their hospitality, friendly disposition, and courtesy, are highly commended; and their benevolence appears in the many foundations for the distressed. But this goodness of heart, or rather the abuse

abuse of it, has been productive of very bad consequences ; many poor, are by the prospect of these asylums for idleness, seduced to be less frugal and industrious than might be expected. It is, indeed, imputed, as a national failing, that every one is for living both in ease and plenty ; and so prevalent is this disposition, that even foreign artificers and workmen, are scarce well settled here, when they give into the same pernicious turn of mind, and imitate the natives (*u*). In no country are insurrections, tumults, robberies, thefts and murders less frequent than in Denmark, which manifests both their submission and fidelity to their superiors, and a good and honest heart. The chief foibles laid to their charge by their own writers, are an affectation of preference in company, too much admiration of every thing foreign, and a fondness for making a figure and living high, which, particularly in the capital, has got to such a head as to render house-keeping extremely dear (*x*).

The Nor-
wegians.

The Norwegians were formerly such a turbulent people that their kings were seldom free from revolts ; but for some centuries past, and especially since their union

(*u*) Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. c. viii.

(*x*) Holberg's Denmark, c. i.

with

with Denmark, they have shewed themselves very quiet and obedient subjects. They have a genius for arts and handicrafts, and make excellent seamen; but these talents often have great alloy of self-conceit and contempt of others. In ambition they rather exceed the Danes; and will make a figure, whatever be the consequence to their families (*y*).

S E C T. XIV.

The three northern kingdoms have but ^{Language.} one language, though something different; in pronunciation; they perfectly understand one another, except in a few particular words. It has great affinity with the German, Dutch and English, but very little with the old Norwegian language, with which the Icelanders only are acquainted, they being originally a Norwegian colony (*z*). The Danish tongue is reckoned very proper for poetry, but till of late years had been much neglected, the Danish writers (*a*) generally preferring foreign languages: at present it is used both for originals and translations on all subjects scientific or entertaining; and thus is brought

(*y*) Holberg's Denmark, c. i.

(*z*) Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. ch. vi.

(*a*) Holberg's Denmark, ch. i. ch. v.

to great copiousness, regularity, and elegance (*b*).

S E C T. XV.

Number of
inhabitants.

If, as northern historians affirm, such swarms of nations, Goths, Vandals, Angles, Longobards, and others, formerly issued from these quarters; Denmark, Norway, and Sweden must have been exceeding populous: but the two latter are at present very bare of inhabitants. To account for this difference in population they say that the antient Goths, being Pagans, polygamy was common among them, which must cause an increase of people (*c*); but that liberty ceasing after the introduction of Christianity, and at the same time of popery, which not only prohibited the clergy from marrying, but countenanced a monastic life, the people necessarily decreased; and lastly, that the Black Death, as it was called, or the pestilence, laid waste the whole north (*d*). Whether these circumstances do sufficiently account for the former great population, I shall not examine; but that there has been no considerable increase of

(*b*) Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. ch. viii.

(*c*) Id. Vol. I. B. I. cap. ix. Dallin suea-Rikes Hist. Deel. I. cap. ix. and Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. cap. ix.

(*d*) Pontoppid. p. 102.

people in the north for above these 300 years may, in my opinion, be imputed to the long wars in which, since the union of Calmar, those kingdoms have been engaged both at home and abroad. This circumstance, however, affects Sweden much more than Denmark, which now, for very near fifty years, has enjoyed an uninterrupted peace; and this happy situation, with the many beneficial regulations for promoting tillage and manufactures, must have greatly increased the number of its inhabitants. A Danish writer, in a piece published not long since, calculates them as follows (29).

In Denmark and Norway, —	1,350,000
In Iceland, the Faro-Islands, Holstein, Oldenburg, and Delmenhorst, }	500,000
In Sleswick, — —	175,500
Total — —	<u>2,020,500</u>

Others, however, raise the number to two millions and half.

S E C T. XVI.

According to the Danish politicians, the nobility constituted no particular class till

(29) Eutropius Philadelphus oeconomische ballance. Sufmilche's Divine Oeconomy, Vol. I. Table XIX. p. 61, 63, 64.

the

the time of Waldemar I. to whom they owed their first privileges and distinction from other landholders. The estates of the nobility were fiefs, which originally fell only to the male descendants ; but they afterwards came to be hereditary in both lines, and the possessors were called heremand, i. e. the lord's, or the sovereign's men, as attending on him at court and in the wars (*e*). Under king Eric VII. several Pomeranian noble families came into Denmark, as did some Bavarians under Christopher III. The influence of the nobility in public affairs fluctuated according to the king's strictness or indulgence towards them. Since the time of Frederic I. their weight had very much increased, and under Frederic III. their power was at its very zenith ; but the revolution in that reign, by which the prerogative was made arbitrary, and the crown hereditary under the same prince, proved their overthrow (*f*). The nobility were at first all on a level, till Christian V. in 1671, created counts and barons ; erected their estates into counties and baronies, and annexed to them, as like-

(*e*) Holberg's Denmark, ch. vii. Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. chap. iv.

(*f*) Holberg, ch. vii.

wife to their persons, some privileges above the gentry, or lower nobility (*g*).

The other inhabitants of Denmark are ^{Burghers:} burghers and peasants; among the former those of Copenhagen have some particular and considerable privileges granted to them in 1658, for their faithful services when the city was besieged by the Swedes (*b*).

The peasants are of four kinds, namely, ^{Peasants:}
 1. Land-owners (Selv-eyer-Bonder, or Jordegene-Bonder). 2. Farmers (Faste-Bonder). 3. Peasants particularly so called (Tienere); and 4. Villains, or hinds, (Vornede). In Norway are only the two first classes, who are called Odels-Bonder or Bygsel-Bonder (*i*).

S E C T. XVII.

The power of the kings of Denmark, so far from being absolutely monarchical, was under many limitations. The obscurity and deficiency of antient history will not afford any certain, or positive judgment of the form of government; though, from the general custom among the northern people, of sharing the government with their kings, it is generally conjectured that so material

The prerogative formerly limited.

(*g*) Holberg, cap. vii.

(*b*) Ibid. chap. vii.

(*i*) Ibid.

a point was not overlooked in Denmark. But the nearer we approach to modern times, when history becomes more consistent and certain, the greater assurances does it furnish, that the prerogative of the kings of Denmark, at least since the XIIth century, has been limited, since they were obliged, in weighty matters, to consult the states of the kingdom.

States of the
kingdom.

These consisted of the nobility, the clergy, the burghers, and peasants (30). They also at certain times held meetings, called Herredage, or Danehofe, and either ordinary or great; the former were held yearly by the king and the council of the kingdom. In these assemblies the first business was law-suits, from which they proceeded to the state of the nation. But at the great meetings, which were convened only on extraordinary, and particular exigencies, the deputies of all the four states assisted, to take into consideration the most important national concerns, as the election of a king, peace, war, and the necessary contributions. The king had, besides the states, a standing

(30) In the times of popery, the clergy was the principal state, as the most wealthy; but their grandeur being curtailed by the Reformation, the pre-eminence naturally fell to the nobility, on whom, indeed, almost every thing rested; for the peasantry, in process of time, were no longer summoned to the diet.

council assigned to him, consisting of twenty-three members, all to be chosen from the nobility, which gave that order very great authority. The power of the king was farther limited by the hand-fastenings, or compacts, made at his election, or accession to the throne; and this proves that they were not a little dependent on the states of the kingdom, and particularly the nobility (31).

S E C T. XVIII.

This was in a particular manner the fate of king Frederic III. a very hard hand-fastening being obtruded on him; but under the very same king followed a total change of the Danish form of government, on occasion of debates between the nobility on one side, and the clergy and citizens on the other, in the dyet held at Copenhagen 1660, concerning some new imposts: the latter in order at once to clip the wings of the too aspiring nobility, invested the king with an

Is now unlimited.

(31) Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, Vol. III. This very writer mentions several diets held since the beginning of the XIIIth century, in which national affairs of great importance were canvassed; yet he maintains the power of the kings to have been antiently without any limitations, and does not produce one single proof of such assertion; and when he comes to speak of the introduction of monarchical sovereignty, he calls it the "Restoration of the sovereignty;" and says, that king Frederic III. was reinstated in that sovereign prerogative "which his ancestors had formerly enjoyed."

absolute prerogative, and made the crown hereditary both in the male and female line: with this singular proceeding the nobility afterwards found themselves obliged to concur. Hereupon the king's hand-fasting was returned to him (32), and after the solemn homage of all the states the act for rendering the crown hereditary, and the prerogative absolute, was delivered into his possession. Thus, in a very short time, this important revolution was brought about and settled, without any blood-shed or commotions (33).

S E C T. XIX.

King's
codes.

King Frederic III. hereupon caused the king's law (Konge Lou) to be drawn up, and he put his hand to it on the 14th of November 1665. Farther, in 1709, a very splendid edition of it in Danish, German, and Latin, was published by order of Frederic IV. (34)

(32) Or rather a copy of it; the original having been mislaid, and not found again till 1710. See Counsell. Haberlin's circumstantial Account of the Introduction of the absolute Sovereignty and hereditary Right in the Kingdom of Denmark. (a German Piece.)

(33) Of this remarkable event, Mr. Haberlin has given a very just and regular account in the piece abovementioned.

(34) The author was M. Schumacher, afterwards the famous count Greiffenfeld. Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, Vol. III. p. 540. though others attribute it to M. Reinking, chancellor of Sleswick and Holstein. A Latin Translation of this Konge-Lou is to be found in Schmauffen's Corp. Jur. Gent. Acad. N^o CLXII.

This is to be held as a fundamental and unalterable law of the kingdom, and to be perpetually observed by the people, and the king's heirs and successors (*k*). By virtue of this instrument, the king of Denmark and Norway is an unlimited hereditary monarch, possessed of the supreme and absolute power (*l*); raised above all human laws (*m*), alone invested with the right to enact and prescribe laws (*n*), to make war, conclude peace and alliances, and impose taxes (*o*), and to whom alone belongs the supremacy over the clergy, even in ecclesiastical matters (*p*).

Notwithstanding this absolute and unlimited prerogative, Frederic III. imposed it as a condition on himself and his successors, that they shall be of the Christian religion, according to the pure confession of Augsb-
The king's obligations.
 burg, so as to maintain and support the same in all their kingdoms and dominions, and protect it against all hereticks, opponents, and blasphemers (*q*). The kingdom, with its several appurtenances and regalities, shall, in no wise, be alienated or dismembered (*r*).

(*k*) Konge's Lou, Introduction.

(*l*) Art. XXVI.

(*m*) Art. II.

(*n*) Art. III.

(*o*) Art. V.

(*p*) Art. VI.

(*q*) Art. I.

(*r*) Art. XX.

S E C T. XX.

Constitution
of Norway.

The kingdom of Norway, which has been united to Denmark since the year 1380, and included with it in the union of Calmar, continued under the sovereignty of the Danish kings after the dissolution of that compact, and was by them looked on as an hereditary kingdom, pursuant to a resolution of the diet at Copenhagen. In 1537, it was incorporated with the crown of Denmark; so that, instead of its council of state (35), it came to be governed like a province, by a deputy or vice-roy. On the introduction of absolute sovereignty (36), Denmark and Norway again became two united kingdoms; and on this occasion the latter recovered its high court of justice, which had been abrogated at the same time as its council of state (s).

All the royal children are stiled heirs of Norway (37).

(35) Holberg will by no means allow that Norway was subject to Denmark. History of Denmark, Part II. p. 354.

(36) This shews that Norway was obliged to conform its measures to those of Denmark, in consequence of which it acknowledged the new form of monarchy.

(s) Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, Part III. p. 34, 35.

(37) King John, on sharing Sleswick and Holstein with his brother Frederic, likewise conferred on him this title, which has since been borne by all the dukes of Holstein. Ibid. Part I. p. 732.

S E C T. XXI.

As the kings of Denmark hold their unlimited power by the best title, so have they made the best use of it for the joint advantage of the state and subjects; for not only the domestic condition of the kingdom has been greatly meliorated by many salutary laws, the introduction of manufactures, the extention of maritime commerce, and advancement of all kinds of arts and sciences, but the crown itself has by improvements in its land and sea-forces acquired a greater lustre and consideration abroad. All which the former government, under its many limitations, never could have brought about to such a degree. The Danes, accordingly, have never expressed any sorrow for that measure, or any wish that the former limitations were restored, but are perfectly contented with their condition, as indeed they have all the reason in the world to be (t).

Good consequences of the introduction of unlimited power.

S E C T. XXII.

Several writers have taken on them to affirm that Denmark was always an hereditary kingdom. Indeed, by what glimpses

Succession to the throne.

(t) Pontoppid. Vol. I. Book IV. ch. i.

the darkness of antient history affords, the crown appears to have been hereditary under the kings of the Skiold line ; but so early as the reign of Waldemar I. we meet with traces of elections, though never out of the royal family. At the union of Calmar in 1397, election was established by an express law, yet, at the same time, limited to the royal children ; and on the renewal of the union in 1436, this limitation was again specified (u) : in the hand-fastening of Christian I. the states had it explicitly inserted, that the kingdom was to continue an elective monarchy (x) : and though the following kings, in order to secure the crown to the eldest son, used to have the solemn homage paid previously to him, yet, as this ceremony could not take place but by consent of the states, that expedient bore no little resemblance to an election. Where no such measures had been taken, the states freely made use of their right of chusing, and thus it was that Frederic I. Christian III. and Frederic III. were raised to the throne: nay, the latter says himself, in the preamble to the King's Law, that the states of Denmark had given up their right of election, and transferred to him the settle-

(u) Holberg, Part I. p. 503, 587.

(x) Ibid. p. 629.

ment of the crown. Would the king have expressed himself in such a manner, had this right of election admitted of the least doubt? Now from these several premises what can be inferred, but that Denmark has, since the union of Calmar, and particularly under the kings of the house of Oldenburg, been an elective kingdom (38)? With the absolute sovereignty was likewise introduced the hereditary succession to the throne, both in the male and female line; and afterwards, to obviate all disputes and cavils, this succession was very punctually and clearly prescribed in the Kong Lou, or King's Law, according to which,

I. The kings legitimate male issue are the first heirs to the crown; and the female descendants (*y*) excluded, whilst any of the former are in being.

(38) See Haberlin's Historical Account, p. 17, 18. where he judiciously determines the question, whether Denmark, before the absolute sovereignty, was an hereditary or an elective kingdom? Baron Holberg produces the proofs on both sides; however, he declares for hereditary right; and among other arguments, says, that on a king's demise, there never was an interregnum; but herein he is palpably mistaken, there having been a manifest interregnum before the election of Christian III. and Frederic III. and, in the latter case, as Holberg himself allows, the celebrated Corfitz Uhlefeldt was, at it were, Inter-rex. The question is, indeed, of very little importance, even to the royal family itself, which, holding its hereditary right by the best of titles, the free resignation of the people, may be very indifferent on what footing the succession stood before such a resignation.

(*y*) Kong Lou, Article XXVII.

II. The

II. The lines are to take place in this manner. The son shall immediately succeed in the place of his father ; and whilst a prince of the first male line is living, the second line shall not inherit ; but one line regularly follow the other.

III. In the succession devolving to the females, the line which is of the royal blood by the father's side is to have the precedence, that of the mother's side remaining excluded from the succession, whilst any of the former are living (*a*).

IV. A princess by the male line is to precede a prince by the female line (*b*).

V. Lastly, in the same line and sex, primogeniture is to be the rule, the elder inheriting before the younger (*c*).

S E C T. XXIII.

Guardian-
ship and Re-
gency dur-
ing the
king's mi-
nority.

I. The king is of age at his entrance into the fourteenth year. During his minority, the guardianship is to stand as the deceased king has appointed by an instrument (*d*).

II. In case of no such instrument or will, the queen dowager, if the minor king's own mother, shall be regent, assisted by the fe-

(*a*) Art. XXVIII.

(*b*) Art. XXVII.

(*c*) Art. XXVIII.

(*d*) Art. VIII.

ven great officers of state (*e*). In this council of regency every thing is to be determined by a majority of votes, in which that of the queen shall be reckoned two (*f*).

III. But in case of the queen's dying, or marrying again, the next prince of the blood, being of age (39), shall be invested with the regency (*g*).

IV. Lastly, if there be no prince of the blood of age, the regency and guardianship are to be lodged in the seven great officers, with an equality of power (*b*).

S E C T. XXIV.

The coronation is of very ancient date in Denmark, and was the more necessary when the kingdom was elective. But this necessity ceased on the introduction of hereditary right; since, according to the royal code, the next in the hereditary line, is, on the king's demise, really and actually king, with all the titles and prerogatives of an unlimited hereditary monarch, without any farther ceremony being in the least requisite to his confirmation (*i*). For tho'

(*e*) Art. IX.

(*f*) Ibid.

(*g*) Art. X.

(*b*) Art. XI.

(*i*) Konge Lou, or Royal Code. Article XV. XVI.

this very code directs that the king shall be solemnly anointed in the cathedral, which may be done in his minority, yet is he not to take any oath, nor to enter into any engagement, either verbal or written (*k*).

S E C T. XXV.

Title.

The many conquests formerly made by the kings of Denmark, and since lost, have occasioned several alterations in their title. Canute the Great, stiled himself king of all England, Denmark, Norway, and a part of Sweden. The following kings till the Waldemars, used only king of Denmark (*l*). The title of Waldemar II. was king of the Danes and Slavi (40). After the union of Calmar, all the three kingdoms were included in the royal style (41), to which Christian I. added those of Sleswick and Holstein, Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

(*k*) Art. XVI. XVII. XVIII.

(*l*) Holberg, P. I. p. 115.

(40) Concerning the Origin of this title, see § 12. (23).

(41) Christian I. in an alliance made with Edward IV. king of England, stiled himself, Regnorum Daciæ, Sueciæ, Norwegiæ, Sclavorum, Gotorumque Rex; Dux Slesvicensis, Comes Holsatiæ, Stormariæ, Oldenburg & Delmenhorst. Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. III. P. I. p. 585. That in the middle ages, Dacia was written instead of Dania, I have taken notice of above, § 1. The title of king of the

The

The present title is king of Denmark and Norway, of the Vandals and Goths, duke of Sleswick, Holstein, Stormarn, and Ditmarsh, count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

The title of majesty was first known in Denmark under king John, but not constantly used. The preceding kings were stiled your honour, your grace, &c (*m*).

S E C T. XXVI.

The three lions, as the chief arms of ^{Arms.} Denmark, are first found in the seals of king Waldemar II. King Eric VII. first quartered the shield with three lions in the upper dexter; in the second three crowns (42); in the under dexter, the Norway lion, with the halberd; and in the

Goths seems not to have been current in Denmark till after the union of Calmar; though some say, that it had been assumed by king Waldemar III. in 1363, on his making himself master of the island of Gothland. Vid. Jac. Wilde, Suec. Hist. Pragmat. cap. ii. § 36. In the negociations for a peace, in 1659, the Swedes would not allow of the king of Denmark's stiling himself king of the Goths. Holberg, Part III.

(*m*) Holberg, P. I. p. 477.

(42) These queen Margaret and king Eric VII. placed in the shield, not only to denote the union of the three northern kingdoms, but likewise on account of their very ancient right to bear these arms. It however appears, that after the dissolution of the union of Calmar, king Frederick I. did not bear the three crowns; but his son Christian III. is said to

fourth

fourth a Pomeranian griffin (*n*). But this shield has been altered and augmented several times. At present it consists of a shield quartered by the cross of the Danebrog order, a central shield and a heart shield. The dexter quarter of the first, is Sol, semee with hearts Mars, and three lions Jupiter crowned Sol; for Denmark: in the second, a lion, crowned Sol, griping a halberd Luna; in a field Mars; for Norway: the third quarter, a fess Jupiter with the three Swedish crowns Sol; in the lower, two lions Jupiter, crowned Sol; in a field Sol; for Sleswick (43): The fourth, also a fess, has in the upper part a leopard Jupiter, with nine hearts Mars, in a field Sol; for the kingdom of the Goths: in the lower part, a dragon, crowned Sol; in a field Mars; for the kingdom of the Van-

have replaced them from political motives. Holberg, P. II. These three crowns became the cause of a bloody war between Eric XIV. king of Sweden, and Frederick II. king of Denmark. At the peace of Stetin, this dispute was referred to an amicable accommodation; but that not taking place, it served, among other things, to kindle a fresh war between Charles IX. and Christian IV. At the peace of Silorod, in 1613, it was at length agreed, that both kingdoms might bear the three crowns. Holberg, P. II.

(*n*) Holberg, ch. x.

(43) This coat, which before was in the central shield, Frederick IV. removed into the grand shield in 1721, on his annexing all Sleswick to the crown.

dals (44): the central shield is likewise a fess; in the dexter, on the upper half, is a nettle Luna; in a field Mars; for Holstein (45): in the sinister, a swan Luna, likewise in a field Mars; for Stormar: in the lower is a trooper, armed, Sol, with his sword drawn, and likewise in a field Mars; for Ditmarsh (46): the dexter of the heart-shield, are, Mars, two bars Sol; for the county of Oldenburg: and, in the sinister; for the county of Delmenhorst, Mars, a cross wavy, Sol (47): the great shield surmounted by a regal crown; with the ensigns of the two orders of Danebrog and the Elephant, appendent (o).

S E C T. XXVII.

The king's eldest son is styled the crown-prince; the other royal children are called hereditary princes and princesses, and heirs of Norway.

Titles, Privileges, and obligations, of the king's children, and the princes of the blood.

The king is to provide them with an appanage suitable to their rank, either in mo-

(44) Or of the Slavi, as it was formerly called. This coat was first borne by Christopher III Holberg, ch. x.

(45) This was first placed in the shield by king Christian I. Ibid. P. I.

(46) Frederick II. added this coat after reducing Ditmarsh.

(47) These arms of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst Christian I. first quartered with the Danish, as being those of his family.

(o) Professor Gatterer's newest Manual of Genealogy and Heraldry.

ney or land, of which they are to enjoy the produce ; yet only for life, and with a reserve of the sovereignty to the king (*p*).

The king's daughters and sisters have likewise a princely subsistence till they marry with the king's consent, when they receive a portion in money ; and they, on their part, engage not to make any farther demand on the king, either for themselves or their children (*q*).

No prince of the blood is to marry, go out of the country, or enter into foreign service, without the king's permission.

On a son or daughter being born to any of the royal family, the parents shall, without delay, make known to the king, the name and birth-day of such prince or princess, as an authentic voucher of their degree in the hereditary succession to the throne.

S E C T. XXVIII.

Origin, and
singular
good fortune
of the royal
family.

The founder of the present royal family was king Christian I. eldest son to Theodorick the Fortunate, count of Oldenburg, who was a-kin to the former royal family of Denmark by his mother Hedwig. The same epithet may very properly be applied

(*p*) Royal Code, Art. XX.

(*q*) Ibid. Art. XXII.

to his lineage ; 1. As having already sat on the throne above three hundred years in a direct male line, one single case excepted (48), which is more than any royal family in Europe can boast, except that of France : and 2. as having the unlimited and hereditary sovereignty conferred on it by the voluntary offer of the states, and consequently holding it by the most just and valid title : to which may be added, 3. that a prince of the Danish royal family now wields the scepter of Sweden ; and the heir apparent of the Russian empire is likewise a branch of that illustrious stem (49). Thus, as at a former, but very short period, all the three northern monarchies will be under princes of the blood royal of Denmark (50). Such good fortune has befallen no other royal family in Europe, except that of Bourbon.

S E C T. XXIX.

The royal residence was formerly at Roschild, but Christopher III. removed it to Capital and royal residence.

(48) When Christian II. being deposed, Frederick I. his brother's son was raised to the throne.

(49) Both the king of Sweden, and the crown prince of Russia, are descended in a direct male line from Adolphus, duke of Sleswick-Holstein, third son to Frederick I. king of Denmark.

(50) At the time when Peter III. sat on the Russian throne.

Copenhagen (51), which has since been the capital of the kingdom; and very great privileges have been conferred on it, particularly by king Frederick III (*t*).

The king has several country palaces in the island of Zealand; as Fredericksburg, Freidensburg, Jagerspreis, Jagersburgh, Freudenland, Hirschholm, with some others (*u*).

S E C T. XXX.

Great officers of state.

The government, during the limitation of the prerogative, in a great measure depended on the council of state, and chiefly on the four great officers, the high steward of the kingdom, the marshal, the chancellor, and the admiral; among whom were distributed the most important concerns of peace and war (*x*). But the establishment of unlimited sovereignty put a final period both to the posts and the authority of these officers, as likewise of the council of state. King Frederick III. however, on the erec-

(51) This city was first called Kiobmands-Havn, or Merchants-Haven, which was afterwards shortened to Kiobn-Havn. King Waldemar I. made a grant of it to the diocese of Roschild; but under Waldemar III. it partly reverted to the crown, and entirely under Christopher III. Pontoppidan's *Origines Hafnienses*.

(*t*) For the Particulars of them, may be consulted Holberg, P. III.

(*u*) Busching's Geography, P. I.

(*x*) Holberg, chap. iii.

tion

tion of his new sovereignty, instead of totally suppressing these titles and dignities, created twenty counsellors of state; and on five of them conferred the titles of high bailiff (52), chancellor, marshal, admiral, and treasurer: he at the same time instituted five commissions or boards (53), over each of which, one of the five before mentioned officers was president, with three counsellors of state, and some other noblemen and commoners under him; these great officers of state were likewise members of the privy council formed by Frederic III (y). This arrangement subsisted till 1676, when it was suppressed (z), together with the titles and posts both of those counsellors and great officers of state.

S E C T. XXXI.

The Danish court is composed of a great number of officers, and some very considerable. The principal are the great marshal, the lords of the bed-chamber, the first gentlemen of the bed-chamber, the master of

Court-officers.

(52) This title was, perhaps, adopted in lieu of that of high-steward, from a disagreeable remembrance of the excessive power of that officer.

(53) These were, 1. The lord's-steward's office. 2. The chancery, and court of law. 3. The war-office. 4. The admiralty. 5. The treasury.

(y) Holberg, P. III.

(z) State of Denmark, ch. xv.

the horse, the great huntsman, and the master of the ceremonies.

S E C T. XXXII.

Order of
the Ele-
phant.

Denmark has two celebrated orders of knighthood, one of the Elephant, and the other of Danebroge, but both of very uncertain origin. Concerning the former, some affirm it to have been founded by king Canute VI. (*a*) during his croifade to Palleftine; but their proofs amount to no more than mere conjectures, and some manifeltly falfe (*b*). Christian I. may, in fome meafure, be accounted the intitutor of this order, he and his confort Dorothy having, in 1464, founded a religious fraternity, the members whereof wore a chain with a medal, on one fide of which was the Virgin Mary ftanding in a crefcent, and on the reverfe an elephant. This fraternity continued under king John, but under Frederic I. and Christian III. the reformation being then eftablifhed, it became neglected as a matter of fuperftition. King Frederic II. however, took it again into confideration, and revived it, though with a great alteration in its enfigns, fuppreffing the Virgin's image, and retaining only the elephant.

(*a*) Bircherodius in Breviario Equeftri, Holberg's Hift. of Denmark, cap. xiv.

(*b*) Kohler's Medallie Recreation (a German work) Part X.

Thus

Thus a spiritual fraternity became changed into a temporal order of knighthood, which was called the order of the Elephant; so that this prince must be allowed, if not the founder, its reviver (*c*). After some lesser alterations under Christian IV. and Frederic III. it received its present form from Christian V. by whose order a set of laws was drawn up for it, and signed by all the knights companions on the 1st December 1693 (*d*).

The number of knights is fixed at thirty, besides the king as soveraign, and his sons. The ensign of the order, which is a gold Elephant enamelled white, is worn at a blue ribbon, hanging across from the left shoulder, with an octangular silver star, and a silver cross in the center, embroidered on the left side of the coat: but on the festivals of the order they appear in the habit, and over it a golden chain of elephants and towers placed alternately, hanging round the neck (*e*).

The institution of the order of Danebroge Order of Danebroge. is, in the preamble to the laws of this order

(*c*) Kohler's Medallic Recreation, Part X. Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, cap. xiv.

(*d*) They are to be seen in Leibnitii Cod. Jur. Gent. Diplom. Mantisse II. Its motto must be allowed very good and apposite: "Mala mori quam fœdari."

(*e*) Vid. Statut. Art. IV, V, VI.

drawn up by king Christian V. in 1693, attributed to king Waldemar II. on occasion of the Danebroke standard dropping from Heaven in his expedition to Livonia in 1219, and of the victory presaged by that miracle (*f*). But this, like the story of the standard itself, on which the institution of the order rests, is very dubious (*g*). Succeeding times likewise afford nothing certain; only it is a common opinion among the Danish writers, that the Danebroke standard, the original ensign of the order, being lost in king John's unfortunate expedition against Ditmarsh in the year 1500, the order itself gradually sunk into oblivion, till Christian V. in 1671, revived it (*h*). But others, and not without reason, reckon that prince to have been its first founder (*i*), though he stiled himself only the restorer of it (*k*).

The knights, exclusive of the sovereign and his sons, are fifty in number: the ensign is a longish gold cross enamelled white, pendent to a red ribbon with a white border, passing over the right shoulder to the left side. The knights wear on

(*f*) Vid. Statut Ord. Danebrogici in Leibnitii Cod. Jur. Gent. Diplom. Mántiff. II. p. 70.

(*g*) Kohler's Medallie. Recreation, Part XIX.

(*h*) Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, Part III. p. 794.

(*i*) Kohler's Medallie. Recreation, p. 382.

(*k*) Vid. Statut. Art. VII.

the right side of the coat, an embroidered silver star with eight points, and a silver cross; in the middle are these words: "Restitutor Christianus R." With the habit of their order they wear a gold chain of crosses, enamelled white, with which every knight provides himself at his own expence (*l*).

To these two orders has been added a third, instituted by the late queen Magdalena Sophia, consort to Christian VI. on the 7th of August 1732, in commemoration of the day of her marriage. It is stiled the order of Fidelity, or De l'Union parfaite, and conferred on persons of rank of both sexes (54). The ensign of the order is a gold cross enamelled white, worn on the left breast at a light blue ribbon, with a silver border; in the middle are the king and queen's names on one side, and on the other these words: "In felicissimæ Unionis Memoriam (*m*)."

S E C T. XXXIII.

Christianity had been long known in the southern and western parts of Europe, before it reached the north; and its com-^{State of religion.}

(*l*) Vid. Statut. Art. II. VII, VIII, IX.

(54) The number of knights is not fixed; the Danish Court Kalendar makes them above an hundred and fifty.

(*m*) Supplem. to 1, 2, 3, and 4th Part of the Genealogical Archivarius of 1732, p. 23.

mencement cannot well be placed higher than the ninth century. It was not, indeed, till the eleventh, that king Canute the Great perfectly established it in Denmark ; and the immediate good consequence of introducing the Christian religion was, that from the said period we hear no more of the northern piracies and ravages. As St. Ansgarius, who was raised to the archbishopric of Hamburgh and Bremen, happened to be the chief instrument in the conversion of the Normans, he and his successors were invested with the spiritual jurisdiction over the three northern kingdoms in quality of the pope's vicar. This authority continued in that see, till at the request of Eric Ejegod, king of Denmark, pope Paschal II. raised the bishopric of Lund, in Schonen, to an archbishopric, with ecclesiastical jurisdiction over Norway and Sweden (*n*). But Drontheim and Upsal being not long after erected into archbishoprics, the archbishops of Lund had nothing to do with any churches but those of Denmark.

The papal supremacy was introduced jointly with Christianity, and so implicitly acknowledged by the Danish clergy, that, at length, they made little or no account

(*n*) Saxo Grammaticus in Hist. Dan. Lib. XII. Baronius in Annal. Eccles. Tom. XI. ad Ann. 1092.

of the king's prerogative. The prelates in process of time, partly by the weak indulgence of the kings, partly by the means which their office put into their hands, attained to great wealth, and of course to great consideration and power. The archbishop and bishops assumed royal prerogatives, coining money, interfering in all state affairs, and not a few of them acting at the head of armies, as commanders; in short, they were become owners of the greater part of the kingdom, and their state, luxury, and pride, exceeded all bounds (*o*). These disorders lasted till the happy establishment of the Reformation in 1536, by Christian III. The archbishop of Lund, together with the six Danish bishops of Roschild, Odensee, Ripen, Aarhus, Wybourg, and Alburg, were deprived of their dignity, their incomes sequestrated, stewards employed for the exercise of their temporalities, and superintendants to perform their ecclesiastical functions. The like methods were taken in Norway, in 1537; and the reformation was introduced into that kingdom without the least opposition (*p*). But in Iceland John Arneson the Roman Catholic bishop of Holum, instead of acquiescing raised

(*o*) Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, Part. I. Part. II.

(*p*) Ibid. P. II.

such an insurrection as was not to be quelled but by an armed force (*q*).

The king hereupon issued an edict relating to discipline and doctrine, and caused the Bible to be published in Danish from Luther's translation; a phenomenon never seen before in those parts (*r*).

Thus the Lutheran religion became established in Denmark; and the successors of Christian III. shewed a great, or rather excessive zeal in supporting it (*s*), not tolerating any sects, not even those founded on principles of the reformation (*s*). Frederic IV. and Christian VI. have by missionaries promoted Christianity amidst the heathens in the East-Indies, Greenland, and Finmark (*t*); and, with this commendable design, the former founded the missionaries seminary at Copenhagen (*u*).

The rules of faith in the Danish church, besides the Apostolic, the Nicene and Athanasian creeds, are the Augsborg con-

(*q*) Holberg, Hist. of Denmark, ch. iv.

(*r*) Ibid.

(*s*) In the new Danish Code, or that of Christian V. are some rigorous ordinances against the papists in general, and particularly the monks, jesuits, and clergy. See Holberg's Denmark, cap. iv. However, both the Roman Catholics, and the Reformed, together with other sects, and likewise the Jews, are tolerated in some places, as Copenhagen, Altona, and Fredericia.

(*t*) Holberg's State of Denmark, and Norway, ch. iv.

(*u*) See above Holberg, § ix. II.

(*u*) Holberg, c. xv.

feſſion, and Luther's catechiſm (*x*). The Formula Concordiæ was ſo far from being accepted by king Frederic, that he prohibited it by a public edict, though it's orthodoxy has been acknowledged both in Denmark and Slefwick (*y*).

The clergy in Denmark are under fix biſhops; the firſt dioceſe is Zealand; the ſecond Fuhnen, Laaland and Falſter; the third Ripen; the fourth Aarhus; the fifth Wybourg; and the fixth Alburg.

Norway has four ſees, Aggerhuus, Chriſtiansand, Bergen, and Drontheim; and in Iceland are two, Scalhold and Holum.

Theſe biſhops, at the time of the reformation, were ordained only as ſuperintendants (*z*); and ſo the laws continually term them; but the title of biſhop ſeems to have been retained in regard to antiquity.

Next in order to the biſhops are the provoſts, or deans, and under theſe the town and country miniſters, with other inferior church-officers. The biſhops the king nominates; the others are choſen by the clergy, with the biſhop's approbation (*a*).

(*x*) Holberg's Hiſt. of Denmark.

(*y*) Ibid. Part II.

(*z*) Id. Ibid.

(*a*) Daniſh Code of Chriſtian V. B. II.

S E C T. XXXIV.

Copenha-
gen univer-
sity.

It will readily be perceived that literature and the sciences were formerly as scarce in the north as in other parts of Europe ; but after the introduction of Christianity, the Normans shewed that they were not insensible to the beauty and benefits of polite learning. The Danish gentry and others, who seeked preferment in the church or state, visited foreign universities, particularly Paris (56) and Cologne (b) : even the Icelanders so long ago as the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, travelled to Germany, Italy, France, and England, in order to enter on a course of studies (c) ; the north, at that time, not affording any proper seminaries. During the first half of the fifteenth century there was not one university in all the three northern kingdoms. Eric of Pomerania intended to have erected one in Denmark, and, in the year 1418, had obtained a licence from pope Martin, which in those times was necessary ; but the continual disturbances of

(56) Two Danes, named Henning, and Petrus de Dacia, the latter of whom was a great mathematician, were rectors in the University of Paris. Holberg, Part I.

(b) Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. c. vii.

(c) Jo. Erici Disquisit. de Vet. Septentrional. Imprimis Islandorum Peregrinationib. cap. iii. p. 85, 86.

his reign prevented the accomplishment of so good a design (*d*). King Christian I. however, carried it into execution, and, in 1478, founded the university of Copenhagen, but could not furnish it with a sufficient income; so that till the time of Christian III. it made but a mean appearance, and had many difficulties to struggle with (*e*). But this prince and his son Frederic II. greatly amended its condition with the sequestrated church-lands: and Christian IV. and Frederic III. shewed themselves very liberal patrons, by several new endowments and foundations (*f*). Even private persons have added colleges (57), in which a certain number of students are lodged and boarded.

At the deplorable fire in 1728, all the buildings belonging to the university, the churches, colleges, and libraries, were totally reduced to ashes. King Christian VI. however, rebuilt the whole; and, besides new constitutions with regard to the uni-

(*d*) Holberg's Denmark, P. I.

(*e*) Ibid. p. 718.

(*f*) Holberg's State of Denmark and Norway, cap. v.

(57) The university has four colleges; the first, called the Regentz, was founded by king Christian IV. in 1623; the second, by the lord high steward Walkendorf, in 1595; the third, called Collegium Medicum, in 1691. by the celebrated physician of the name of Bork; and the fourth, in 1705, by George Elerfen. Holberg's State of Denmark and Norway, chap. v.

versity in general, augmented the salaries of the professors, and, in 1732, gave it a new charter, (58); so that he may be looked on as its second founder (g). The number of the ordinary and extraordinary professors is little short of fifty.

Besides Copenhagen university, the only one in the Danish territories; Soroe has an academy of gentlemen (59), with seven professors; and Odensee a collegiate school, with six professors, which is likewise the only seminary of that sort in Denmark.

S E C T. XXXV.

Literary societies.

For the improvement of the sciences and literature, several societies have lately been erected at Copenhagen; and their writings have already met with the approbation of the learned world. The principal among these are the academy of sciences, which consists partly of ordinary, and partly of honorary members; and the royal Danish academy for improving the Danish language and the history of the north (60).

(58) It contains the whole present constitution of the university. *Ibid.* ch. v.

(g) Holberg, *ibid.* p. 201.

(59) For the several changes made in it by king Frederick V's new charter of the 17th of July, 1747, see *Holb.* ch. vii.

(60) The names of the members of both these societies are to be seen in the Danish Court Calendar.

S E C T. XXXVI.

The favourite sciences of the northern nations, were antiently poetry and history, which they blended; their poets, whom they called Skalders (61), being at the same time their historians. The Icelanders have chiefly distinguished themselves by historical poems; and to them are owing the most ancient written monuments of northern history, now remaining (*b*). The other sciences made but a slow progress, in the north; and it was not till the sixteenth and seventeenth century, that they became propagated to any considerable degree, by the enlargement and prosperity of the university of Copenhagen. Since that time, this kingdom has produced many eminent luminaries (62) in divinity, physics, mathematicks, philology, and history (63).

Flourishing
state of the
sciences.

(61) Among these is Regnier Lodbroc; and Mr. Mallet, in his *Introduët. à l'Hist. de Dannem.* Tom. II. p. 268. has given us a translation of one of his compositions.

(*b*) Holberg's *State of Denmark and Norway*, ch. v. p. 157. *Conf. Torfæi Antiquit. Univ. Sept. Lib. I. cap. i. p. 2—13.*

(62) Holberg has their names, chap. v. He makes no mention of lawyers, because, says he, in Denmark they are not so numerous as in other countries; the Danish law being so short and plain, and the intricate Roman law, with which other nations are pestered, not having room here.

(63) Of the three different hypotheses in the antient Danish history, and the writers who have been more or less followed there, an account may be found in Holberg, cap. v.

longed

At present, learning, and all the sciences, may be said to flourish in Denmark equally with any other country, which is principally to be attributed to the noble attention and bounty of their majesties Frederic V. and Christian VII (64).

S E C T. XXXVII.

And of the
fine arts in
Denmark.

The fine arts, under the patronage of these princes, have enjoyed a like happiness; not to mention other useful and elegant institutions, Frederic V. founded at Copenhagen, an academy of painting, sculpture, and architecture; and it is maintained in a manner truly royal.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Danish
laws.

The countries of which the kingdom of Denmark consisted, had anciently different laws, and particularly Zealand and Jutland (65). An absolute prerogative hav-

(64) A signal testimony of this, among others, is the journey to Arabia of a society of learned persons at the king's expence in 1762. The utility and grandeur of this undertaking, may be seen in Mr. Michaelis's preface to his questions transmitted to that society, and the instructions likewise given in it; but, at the same time, how is to be lamented, that this glorious design was in a great measure frustrated, most of the gentlemen dying before they could well proceed to business!

(65) The latter, which was termed the Great Jute Law, and is translated into several languages, king Waldemar II. promulgated in the year 1240; but it has been superseded in Jutland by Christian V's. new Code, and is now retained only in Sleswick. Holberg, ch. ii.

ing been conferred on Frederick III. that prince employed several persons to draw up a general code, suited to that juncture and the new form of government, which took them up from 1661, to 1669; and Christian V. after it had been several times revised by the greatest lawyers in the kingdom, had it printed in the year 1683, in order to its being better known (66). This, a few articles excepted, which have been altered, remains in full force (i). Cases, not determined by it, are decided by the law of nature, and not by the Roman laws, to which no greater regard is paid in Denmark than to the canon law, or the feudal law of Lombardy (k).

King Christian V. likewise caused a code ^{Norway,} to be made for the kingdom of Norway (67), and abolished that of Christian IV. which obtained in that country (l).

(66) Mr. Waghort, late professor of law at Copenhagen, published a German and Dutch translation of it, under the title of Konges Christian V. Danske Lou. Moleworth, the English envoy, who is pleased to find fault with almost every thing in Denmark, yet bestows the highest encomiums, and indeed very deservedly, on this code, for its brevity, perspicuity, and equity. L'Etat present de Dannemarc, ch. xv. p. 225.

(i) Holberg's State of Denmark and Norway, ch. xii.

(k) Kofod Ancher ad Frid. Platnerum Epist. de Auctoritate Jur. Rom. Canon. et Longobard. in Dania, in Nov. Act. Erudit. Nov. 1761. p. 553. seqq.

(67) They were printed at Copenhagen in 1687, under the title of Konges Christian V. Norske Lou.

(l) Holberg's State of Denmark and Norway. ch. xii.

Iceland.

Iceland has retained its own laws, received, in 1280, from Magnus Lagebatt, king of Norway, and printed in 1578, 1579, and lastly, in 1709 (*m*). King Frederic IV. however, ordered, in 1718, that in processses the courts should be governed by the new Norway code (*n*).

S E C T. XXXIX.

Courts of justice.

Denmark has three inferior courts, the village-court, the court of nobles, and the town-court (68). These are held once a week by a judge (Foget), and a clerk of the court, with seven or eight assessors (Tingemand, or Stockemand), who, in towns, are chosen from the townsmen, and in the country from the peasants (*o*).

From these an appeal lies to the country-courts, (Lands-Tinger), of which there are four, and held monthly; or, when necessary, every fortnight. But some towns have a particular privilege, by which an

(*m*) Holberg's State of Denmark and Norway, ch. xii.

(*n*) John Arnefens Inledning til den Gamle og Nye Retsgang i Island (Kiobnhavn, 1762). *Altena Literary Chronicle*, 1763. No 3.

(68) The first are called Herreds-Tinger; the second Birke-Tinger; the third Bye-Tinger. Herred signifies a district of several villages. Birke, a district of noblesse, and gentlemen's estates.

(*o*) Christian V's Code, B. I. ch. iii. Holberg, ch. xiii.

appeal lies from the sentence of the judge of the court to the burgomaster and corporation (*p*).

The royal and supreme court of justice was instituted at Copenhagen, by Frederic III. in 1661. To this tribunal lie appeals from the provincial courts, from the magistracies of the privileged towns, and from the courts of the nobility. Its session begins in March, the king himself opening it in person, and continues till the causes brought before the court are duly terminated according to an established form.

For the great officers of state (*q*) and other persons of distinction, king Christian V. erected the Hofst-Gericht, or court tribunal; and for the commonalty an inferior court, called the Burg Gericht or town-tribunal; both are held in the palace of Copenhagen (*r*).

The constitution and method of the inferior courts in Norway are nearly the same as in Denmark. In 1665, king Christian V. erected a high court of justice at Christiania (*s*), but with appeal to the royal court of justice at Copenhagen.

(*p*) Christian V's code, B. I. ch. iii Holberg, ch. xiii.

454.

(*q*) Holberg's State of Denmark and Norway, ch. xv.

(*r*) Ibid.

(*s*) Ibid.

S E C T. XL.

State of the
land forces.

Denmark, before the sovereignty became absolute, does not appear to have had any regular and standing army, but only a kind of militia (*t*), till Frederic III. made it one of his first concerns, that 24,000 men should be constantly kept on foot for the defence of the kingdom. This force was augmented, and received some improvements, under Christian V. but Frederic IV. completed the military system. In 1701, he regulated the militia in Denmark, and in 1705, that of Norway; and in 1717, he put the Danish cavalry, which till then, used to be dispersed all over the country, on a quite different footing, appointing twelve Horse-Districts, as they were called, in each of which a regiment was to be quartered and maintained. He had before, in the year 1714, instituted a company of cadets, consisting of 100 young gentlemen, with a yearly salary (*u*).

Thus the Danish military establishment consists of raised men, and national troops or militia. The former, of whom the greater part, particularly the foot, are foreigners, receive a bounty for listing, and

(*t*) Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, P. III.

(*u*) Holberg's State of Denmark and Norway, ch. xi.

are in all things like regular forces, and kept in constant pay ; the latter are furnished by the country, and as they do no constant duty, so are they not in constant pay, except the officers and subalterns. The proprietor of an estate of sixty tons of Hartkorn (69), finds a man for the militia, and half a one for the reserve. Norway, relatively to its militia, is divided into small districts, called Lagder ; each of which furnishes and maintains a dragoon and a horse. All the sons of farmers are registered immediately after their birth ; and on the death of a soldier in any Lagd, he is replaced by the eldest in that Lagd, who after serving fourteen years is entered among the Land-Warn, or the garrisons in fortified places, and at the age of fifty he obtains his discharge.

Norway has likewise eight companies of Skielobers, or skaiters, who by their extraordinary swiftness along the mountains, and on the ice, have sometimes performed notable service.

Farther, the other countries dependent on the crown of Denmark, as Sleswick, Holstein, Oldenburg, and Delmenhorst, maintain some regiments of militia.

(69) This means a spot of land, the due sowing of which will require a ton of rye, a ton of barley, and two tons of oats ; a ton is eight bushels.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

The national regiments are exercised every Sunday after divine service; and once a year every regiment is embodied for the same purpose. They likewise, the reserve excepted, are provided with an uniform.

Some years ago the Danish forces consisted of,

I. In Denmark and the German territories.

	Men.
1. Of twelve regiments of horse, viz. the life-guards, ten regiments of cuirassiers, and one regiment of dragoons. In all	6184
2. Twelve regiments of regular infantry — —	11952
3. Two regiments of foot guards	1872
4. Seven national regiments, or militia — —	10440
5. A garrison regiment —	1200
6. Danish and Holstein artillery	864
	32512

II. In NORWAY.

	Men.
1. Of five regiments of dragoons	3120
Each of these regiments has two companies of Land-Warn, making — —	780
2. Two regiments of regular infantry — —	2424
3. Thir-	

3. Thirteen national regiments, or militia	—	Men.	16224
Each has two companies of Land- Warn, making	—		2704
4. Four garrison companies	—		494
5. Skielobers	—	—	600
6. Artillery	—	—	420
			<hr/>
			26766
			<hr/>
In all	(y)		59278

S E C T. XLI.

The chief fortified places in Denmark, are, Copenhagen, Cronenburg, Korfor, ^{Fortified} Nyburg, Fridericia, Fladstrand. _{places.}

In the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein, are, Rendsburg, Gottorp, Gluckstadt, Hitler fort, and Stainsburg fort; in the county of Oldenburg, the town of that name, and Apen.

In Norway, Fredericstadt, Fredericshall, Aggerhuus, Kongswinger, Christiansand, Bergen, Drontheim, and Wardoehuus.

S E C T. XLII.

The Danes have, in all ages, made a ^{Navy.} figure at sea, and been engaged in frequent

(y) Denmark, in Busching's Geography.

wars on that element, yet the period when their kings began to have a constant fleet of their own is scarce so much as conjectured. Christian IV. who had a natural turn for sea-affairs, is accounted the first who made any great improvements in the Danish navy, and rendered it respectable (z). All his successors have made it the constant object of their attention, so that the Danish fleet is unquestionably the best in the north.

The matrosses, who are kept in pay at all times, consist of four divisions, each of ten companies, and a company of gunners, making together 4400 men. But that the whole fleet may on occasion be expeditiously manned, all sea-faring men are registered, and divided into twelve districts, six in Denmark, and six in Norway, which together form a body of above 20,000 men.

As a nursery for able officers, king Frederic IV. in the year 1701, instituted a company of sea cadets, who, besides being instructed in all the sciences relative to the sea-service, have a yearly appointment.

Of all kinds of naval stores Denmark has within itself a great abundance, (hemp only excepted).

The navy some years ago consisted of forty ships of the line, from a 100 to 50

(z) Holberg's State of Denmark, ch. xi,

guns; and fifteen frigates, from forty to eighteen, besides many smaller vessels. King Frederic V. lately added to it a considerable number of galleys. The whole fleet lies in Copenhagen harbour, where are several magazines, all full of stores ready for service, and a very large arsenal equally well provided (a).

S E C T. XLIII.

Canute the Great is reckoned the first ^{coins.} Danish prince who coined money (70); but afterwards the bishops and several towns assumed that privilege: the former continued it till the reformation, and in the latter it was not suppressed till the time of Frederic II. (b). At first only small pieces as pfennings were coined: but king John had pieces of the bigness of a dollar struck, with the date of the year, which is wanting on the former pieces; and of these the proper name is not known. Under Frederic I. who likewise coined such money, they were called

(a) Achenwall's Constitution of European States, in German, c. vii. § 57, 58.

(70) Most of his coins, however, were struck in England, as appears from the inscription, Cnut. Rex. An. And, indeed, the name of Schilling and Pfennig, seem to have been imported from England. It may likewise be supposed that Englishmen were afterwards employed as masters of the mint, the inscriptions on the first Danish coins being a mixture of Danish and English. Holberg, cap. ix.

(b) Ibid,

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

thalers or Joakim's thalers (*c*). Christian III. first coined dollars of forty-eight schillings; marks, of which three went to a dollar; and schillings, of which sixteen made a mark; and added the date and his name, which was not done before. Christian IV. put the coin under new regulations, most of which are observed to this day; and he likewise first coined crowns of eight marks, which at present go by the name of double crowns (*d*).

In Norway, money was formerly coined by the towns of Drontheim, Alstoe, and Bergen; the latter held that privilege the longest, namely, down to 1575 (*e*).

The Danes reckon by rixdollars, marks, and schillings; a rixdollar is equal to six marks, and a mark to sixteen schillings; Lubec and Hamburgh likewise reckon by marks and schillings, in the following proportion with those of Denmark.

One Schil. Lub. is equal to two Danish.

One Mark Lub. is equal to two Danish.

Three Marks Lub. to one imperial, or rixdollar, which is the same as in Denmark.

The Danish current coins are,

(*c*) Holberg, c. ix.

(*d*) *ibid.*

(*e*) *Ibid.*

I. Of G O L D.

Ducats of fourteen marks (71); and the new current ducats, as they are called, equal to twelve marks.

II. Of S I L V E R.

Crowns of 4 marks (72).

Double 8.

Half 2.

Pieces of 24, 16, 12, 8, 4, 2 schillings.

III. Of C O P P E R.

Fyrkens, or dreylings, two of which go to a schilling.

A mark of fine silver, coined into crowns, makes 10 dollars, $\frac{5}{7}$, but in what is called small current money 10, 8, 4, and 2 schillings pieces, the standard is the same as at Hamburg; according to which a mark of fine silver is made to yield $11\frac{1}{3}$ dollars. The crowns are about $17\frac{1}{7}$ per cent. better than the money of the Leipfick standard, in relation to which the Danish and Hamburg currency bears an agio of $8\frac{1}{7}$ per cent (*f*).

(71) These, and ducats in general, rise and fall at Lubeck, without any settled value.

(72) These being of a better standard, have an agio of four schillings above the current money, and so likewise the double and half crowns in proportion.

(*f*) Dissertation on Coins, (a German piece).

S E C T.

S E C T. XLIV.

Revenue.

The ordinary revenue of the kings of Denmark formerly rose from the crown-lands; which, however, produced but little, being granted to the nobility on so small consideration (g), that they reaped the chief benefit thereof (73). It was only on extraordinary occasions, and with consent of the states, that any general imposts were laid. But the finances coming wholly into the king's hands, on his being invested with unlimited sovereignty, were put under a far better regulation particularly by Frederic IV.

The chief branches of the king's income at present are,

1. The demesnes, or crown-lands, which are very considerable, but some under alienation (74).

2. The regalia, as the post-office, stamps, (75) and cards (76).

(g) Holberg's Hist. of Denmark, P. III.

(73) This occasioned the motion made by the clergy and citizens at the diet of Copenhagen, in 1660, of farming out these lands to the highest bidder; and it was this motion that gave rise to the violent debate between the nobility and those two orders, to which the introduction of unlimited sovereignty was chiefly owing. Ibid. Part III.

(74) Part of them Frederick IV. employed in forming the norse districts.

(75) All agreements, law-writings, acquittances, grants, commissions, and warrants for employments, must be made out on stamp paper. These stamps are from six schillings to three hundred rixdollars. See Lettres sur la Dannemarck, Lettre XI.

3. The

3. The land-tax (77) which is rated by the number of tons of hart-korn (78).

4. The king's tythes (79).

5. The family-tax, (Folke og Familie scat) payable by those who reside in the country, without following agriculture, and whose lands are exempt from taxes.

6. Duties on imports and exports (80).

7. Excise on all kinds of provisions and liquors.

8. The marriage duty (81), payable by all persons on marrying (*b*).

(76) Part of their produce goes to the new hospital at Copenhagen.

(77) This has been mentioned above, § 40. only be it observed here, that thus the land is rated according to its fertility, and not extent.

(78) Every ton of hart-korn pays annually to the corn-tax four marks twelve schillings; to the grain-tax nine marks; to the cavalry-tax one mark eight schillings; and to the ox and bacon-tax twelve schillings.

(79) Of these the king only has a third, the other two parts going to the church and the minister.

(80) Of all the tolls, that of the Sound produces most, between 5 and 6000 ships passing through it, communibus annis, and each paying one, or rather more per Cent. Its produce, together with the tolls of Bergen and Drontheim, and some of the duties paid at Altena, go into the king's private purse. Lett. sur la Dann. XI. The crown of Denmark used to be frequently at variance with England, Sweden, and the United Provinces, about this toll. M. Molefworth makes some objections against the Danish right to this toll, to which the author of *Defense du Danem.* has returned a keen answer.

(81) Persons possessed of an employment giving them a rank, pay fifty rixdollars; gentry, without any office or title, twenty; but peasants, soldiers, and seamen are exempt. Lettres, &c. XI.

(*b*) For all the several branches. See Lettres sur le, &c. XI.

These are the ordinary imposts; as for the extraordinary, nothing can be said of them with any certainty. Of these one is the princesses tax, being levied on the marriage of the king's daughter, or sister. On other occasions the king orders a poll-tax or a portion of the estate or substance of any person, or appoints other taxes, which are most agreeable to him, and will best answer the purpose.

S E C T. XLV.

Agriculture.

The islands of Zealand, Fuhnen, and Laaland, besides their fertility in grain, have been excellently improved; whereas in Jutland and Sleswick, a great many parts lie quite waste and barren. Some German families, however, forced by the calamities of the last war to quit their country, came to settle in those parts, and by their industry have raised some kinds of grain, as buck-wheat and rye, besides garden stuff; so that the new inhabitants of this tract, which hitherto was looked on as quite unsusceptible of culture, are in a fair way of procuring to themselves a comfortable subsistence, and have already built some villages (*i*). But it may be observed, that the

(*i*) Pontoppid. Vol. I. B. I. ch. ix.

territories belonging to Denmark produce not only a sufficiency of corn for themselves, but in good years, export considerable quantities to Norway (*k*).

S E C T. XLVI.

Denmark was not without its manufactures in the last century : the little town of Kioge made carpets, and Copenhagen had its silk looms. In 1668, Frederic III. founded a cloth manufactory in the military hospital; and under Christian V. and Frederic IV. it was carried on with such success as to furnish cloathing for all the Danish soldiers and seamen in the service of the crown. But the period, in which manufactures were brought to some degree of perfection, and spread throughout the kingdom, began under Christian VI. This prince shewed both an unintermitting zeal, and a boundless liberality, in promoting every thing that tended to the prosperity of his dominions; and this truly royal disposition was zealously imitated by his successor Frederic V. Denmark is now able to furnish itself and all its dependencies, with cloth and various kinds of woollen and silk stuffs, stockings, hats &c. Instead of iron, steel, and copper be-

Manufac-
tures.

(*k*) Busching's Geography, Part I.

ing exported, those metals are now worked up at home into all manner of utensils and tools; all the arms of the Danish troops are of a Danish manufacture; and salt petre, gunpowder, and vitriol are no longer fetched from abroad. The Danish earthen wares and porcelaine are already in some degree of reputation; and the gloves, and other leathern manufactures at Randers and Odense, are universally known.

That so many, and such a variety of manufactures, are come into such vogue, and, within no long space of time, is, besides the attention of the crown, not a little owing to the prohibition of foreign goods, and the liberal encouragement given to able artificers and workmen. Copenhagen has a warehouse, founded and supported by the king, where manufacturers on bringing a piece of work, which they are not able to dispose of, immediately receive two thirds of the value, and the remaining third on the sale of it; shopkeepers likewise may here be supplied with goods on credit for a year and a half, at the small interest of four per cent. (1).

(1) Lettres sur la Dannem. XIV.

S E C T. XLVII.

The whole trade of the north was for- ^{Trade.}merly carried on by the Hans-towns; but, in the sixteenth century this advantage gradually became impaired by the increase of the Dutch trade to the Baltic. The Danes likewise applied themselves to commerce; but it was chiefly by raw exports in foreign bottoms. King Christian V. was the first who animated his subjects to make a figure at sea, granting considerable privileges to the owners of ships of burthen, or carrying a certain number of guns, and these were called *Defension-ships*; in consequence of which, many persons undertook foreign voyages in ships of their own. This they particularly did during the great French war which broke out in 1688, fetching French and Spanish commodities at the first hand. Frederic IV. made Copenhagen a staple-town for wine, brandy, salt, and tobacco, with a proviso, of their being brought from France and Spain in Danish bottoms (*m*). Since that time, and especially in the long peace which has now continued since 1720, the Danish maritime commerce has been daily increasing, so as

(*m*) Holberg's State of Denmark, ch. viii.

to be now the most considerable in the north.

Domestic
trade.

The Danish monarchy consisting of several islands and countries separated by the sea, a great intercourse must be carried on by water : between Denmark and Norway it employs many ships and vessels of various dimensions. The southern part of the latter kingdom, has its corn from Denmark, and is prohibited from buying any other, though it might have it cheaper from foreigners, who are likewise excluded from trading to the Faro-islands, Iceland, and Greenland ; the trade to the two former is indeed managed on the king's account.

S E C T. XLVIII.

Foreign
trade.

The Danes have a considerable foreign trade, and under such good regulations, that the ballance is on their side (82).

In Europe they frequent most of the harbours of the Baltic, and carry on a navigation to France, Holland, England, Spain, and Portugal.

They likewise trade to the Mediterranean, Italy, and the Levant ; and for the security

(82) The exports in the year 1759, including the freight, amounted to 2,533,271, and the imports to 2,477,455 rix-dollars. Busching's Geography, Vol. 1.

of this important branch of trade, the king has entered into treaties of commerce with several of the states of Italy, the Ottoman Porte, and the piratical republics of Africa.

In Asia they send ships to Tranquebar, Bengal, China.

In Africa they traffick with Morocco, and Fez, and along the coast of Guinea. In the West-Indies they are possessed of the islands of St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, their commerce to which is very large and lucrative.

S E C T. XLIX.

For the advancement of trade in general, and particularly the foreign, Denmark has several companies, and these enjoy considerable privileges. That of the longest standing, from its first foundation, is the East-India, which had for its founder king Christian IV. in the year 1616. Soon after its commencement it was able to purchase the town of Tranquebar, together with its territory (83). But not long after, either by ill management or misfortunes, or both, its trade fell into such decay, that in 1634, it came to a period. Christian V. in 1670, formed a new company, and this,

(83) See above, § 11.

though strongly supported by him and his successor Frederic IV. was at length dissolved in 1730. Soon after, however, at the king's encouragement, a new company was erected, and Christian VI. the succeeding prince, in 1732, gave it a forty years charter for an exclusive trade, from the Cape of Good Hope as far as China, and this is the present Royal Danish Asiatic Company. It consists of two funds, the first, called the Settled Fund, is employed in purchasing the possessions and goods of the old company. Its shares were originally four hundred, at two hundred and fifty rixdollars each, but it has since raised the price of them to fifteen hundred rixdollars, and each of the four hundred shares being now divided into four, and consequently the four hundred multiplied to sixteen hundred, one of these new shares sells for three hundred and seventy-five rixdollars. The other fund is distinguished by the name of the Running Fund, and arises from the annual contributions of the proprietors for fitting out the ships; and on the return of the ships and the sale of their cargoes, every one has his quota paid him; with a proportion of the profits.

Iron is the only European commodity which the company exports to the East-Indies;

dies; and in those parts, as likewise in China, it carries on its trade with cash. Its affairs in Europe are under the administration of a governor, who is always a person of eminent rank, and four directors, of whom one must be a civilian, or a sea officer, and the other three merchants (*n*).

Under Frederic III. was erected a company for trading to Guinea, where, in 1659, it built fort Christiansburg. With this was afterwards united the West-India company, founded by Christian V. in 1671, which has gradually acquired the islands of St. Thomas, St John, and St. Croix (84). But on the first of January 1675, Frederic V. abolished this united West-India company, and incorporated its several islands and places with the crown, at the same time taking on himself all the shares, one thousand two hundred and fifty in number, at the current price, namely a thousand rix-dollars with the interest, at five per Cent. (*p*). The Guinea trade has, ever since been left free to all the subjects.

Guinea and
West-India
company.

In the year 1751, a very advantageous treaty was concluded with the emperor of

African
company.

(*n*) Holberg's State of Denmark, ch. viii.

(84) See above, § 11.

(*o*) Holberg's State of Denmark, c. viii.

(*p*) New Genealogical and Historical Accounts, P. LXIV.

Morocco, pursuant to which, they were to have an exclusive trade and settlement in the harbours of Saffi and Santa Cruz ; but the French, English, and Dutch merchants jointly making a great clamour about it, the court of Morocco revoked the convention (q). In the year 1755, a new treaty, however, took place, by which the subjects of Denmark were allowed to traffick in all the towns and ports of Morocco (r). This trade was conducted by the African company, founded in the year 1755. Its capital is divided into five hundred shares, each of five hundred rixdollars (s).

General
trading
companies.

King Frederic V. in the year 1747, erected at Copenhagen a general trading company, and granted to it the exclusive trade to Greenland (85), together with the whole fishery on that coast. Next to this, their principal advantage arises from exporting to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, fish, and all northern commodities, as timber, iron, copper, hemp, tar, and leather ; and bringing back wine, oil, salt, drugs, &c. It likewise furnishes the Danish West-India islands with slaves from

(q) New Genealogical and Historical Accounts, P. XXV.

(r) Ibid. P. LXXXV.

(s) Lettres sur le, &c.

(85) See above, § 9.

the coast of Guinea. Its original capital consisted of a thousand shares, each at three hundred rixdollars; but in 1757, the proprietors paid in a contribution of two hundred rixdollars on every share, a hundred of which were to be employed in purchasing two hundred shares in the newly erected Levant company (*t*).

This company was likewise brought to a consistency in the year 1757, with a capital of five hundred shares, each at five hundred rixdollars, of which the general trading company made a purchase of two hundred, thereby acquiring two fifths of the Levant commerce (*u*).

The whole trade to Iceland was formerly in the hands of Holland, Hamburgh, and Bremen, till king Christian IV. in 1619, erecting an Icelandic company, prohibited all foreign interlopers. But some Algerine pirates having in 1627, landed in Iceland, carried away many people, and a ship belonging to the company, which misfortune proved the cause of its dissolution in 1629. The trade to Iceland was several times farmed (*x*), till in 1723, a new Iceland

Levant
company.

Former Ice-
land com-
pany.

(*t*) Lettres, &c. XII.

(*u*) Achenwall's Constitution of European States, cap. vii.
(a German Work.)

(*x*) Holberg's State of Denmark, &c cap. viii.

company was erected, with a charter, including likewise the trade to Finmark; but great losses, by the decrease of the fishery, and the mortality among the sheep in Iceland, put an end to it in 1759 (*y*); since which this trade has been managed on the king's account by some merchants appointed for that purpose (*z*).

Insurance-
company.

Farther, for the conveniency of trade in general, Frederic IV. in 1727, instituted the insurance company, and in 1736, founded the bank of Copenhagen (*a*).

S E C T. L.

Trading
towns and
sea-ports.

Denmark has several good trading towns and seaports, as Korsor and Kallundburg, in Zealand; Odensee and Nyburg, in Fuhnen; Aalburg, Randers, and Ripen, in Jutland; Flensburg, and Friderichstadt, in Sleswick; Bergen and Christiansound, in Norway. But it is at Copenhagen, where the good effects of the encouragement given by several kings, to trades, arts, and manufactures, appear in their full lustre (86).

(*y*) Lettres sur, &c. XIII.

(*z*) Achenwall, *ibid*.

(*a*) Lettres sur, &c. XII.

(86) The general company of trade was chiefly erected with a view of making Denmark the staple for the Baltick. Lettres sur, &c.

S E C T. LI.

The several affairs of government are managed by particular boards or chambers, the principal of which is the privy-council of state, instituted by king Christian V. in 1676, and in which the most important concerns, both domestic and foreign, receive their determination. Its members are, at most, but three or four, with the king in person at their head, and two officers appertaining to it, the Danish and the German. In these are digested all matters preparatively to their being laid before the privy council: to the former belong the Danish and Norwegian affairs; to the latter those of Sleswick and Holstein, Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, and likewise foreign concerns. The former has a chief secretary (87), a Maître des Requêtes, several clerks and other officers. The latter has likewise a chief secretary, an office-keeper and some clerks.

Administra-
tion of state-
affairs.

The other great boards are,

I. The war-office, which takes cognizance of the army, fortifications, magazines, and all military concerns. The chairman is likewise styled principal secretary.

(87) The principal secretary of each department, is always a member of the privy-council.

The

The expences for the military establishment are stated by the commissary-general.

II. The admiralty-office, to whose department belong the fleet and all maritime affairs. At the head of it is a principal secretary of war, besides clerks and other officers.

III. The treasury and exchequer, instituted by king Frederic IV. for the management of the revenue. It was formerly under a president, who was stiled the great treasurer, but his place is now supplied by three deputies and a committee of six.

IV. The West-India and Guinea custom-house was founded in 1760, on the extinction of the West-India and Guinea company; and its province is to secure the king's dues and rights in the islands of St. Thomas, St. John, St. Croix, and fort Christiansburg, as likewise the custom and excise duties in Denmark. This board consists of three deputies and five committeemen.

V. The commercial and oeconomy-board founded by Christian VI. in 1735, for the improvement of trade, navigation, the fisheries, manufactures, tillage, &c. It receives, examines, and makes trial of all schemes offered for those good purposes.

VI. The

VI. The ecclesiastical inspection-office, was likewise instituted by Christian VI. in 1737; its members are six in number, three laymen and three churchmen, stiled Ecclesiastical Inspectors. All ecclesiastical persons and causes in Denmark and Norway, the university of Copenhagen, together with all schools and seminaries of learning, are under their inspection; and all writings relating to divinity and religion must have their Imprimatur.

VII. The general post-office, which controuls all the post-houses throughout the kingdom (88).

S E C T. LII.

The maxims by which the Danish go-^{Interest of Denmark.}vernment has proceeded of late, and particularly during the last half century, are so well adapted to the real advantage of the state and people, that Europe affords but few such instances. At home, trade, navigation, tillage, manufactures, and all the arts and sciences, both ornamental and useful, have been promoted with the greatest application and liberality; and at the same time the land and sea-forces were put on a respectable footing. Abroad, a constant peace

(88) Concerning those several offices. See *Lettres sur le Danemark* II. XV. and *Holberg's State of Denmark*, c. xv.

and harmony has been carefully cultivated with all the neighbouring and foreign powers; and during the two last great wars which shook all Europe, and laid waste so many countries, Denmark observed a strict neutrality, from which it reaped great advantages. To these salutary measures is owing the present prosperity of Denmark, and on its adherence to them, entirely depends the continuation of its happiness.

S E C T. LIII.

Treaties.

The most remarkable treaties between the crown of Denmark and other powers, are the following,

- I. With FRANCE (*b*).
- II. With GREAT BRITAIN (*c*).
- III. With the UNITED PROVINCES (*d*).

(*b*) See chap. iii. § 81. And here I cannot omit what M. de Real (Science du Gouvern. P. VI. p. 569.) says of a treaty between France and Denmark, concluded in 1662; in which, Art. XXVIII. and XXX. it was agreed, that on the former crown's intending to send more than three ships through the Sound, it should be obliged to signify the reasons of such an armament; and that on its sending five ships into the Baltick in the year 1739, it conformed to those articles. But nothing of this is to be found in the said treaty, except, that, when the men of war of either crown shall remain longer than necessary in the harbours or rivers of the other, the governor shall be made acquainted with the reasons of such stay.

(*c*) See Chap. iv. § 73.

(*d*) See Chap. v. § 58.

IV. With the EMPEROR and the HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

1. Treaty of peace and friendship of the 23d of May 1544 (*e*).
2. Treaty of peace of the 22d of May 1629 (*f*); 3. Alliances of the 26th of January 1674 (*g*); and 4. Of the 26th of May 1734 (*b*).

V. With SWEDEN.

1. Treaty of peace of the 13th of December 1570 (*i*); 2. Of the 20th of January 1613 (*k*); 3. Of the 13th of August 1645 (*l*); 4. Of the 8th of March 1658 (*m*); Of the 6th of June 1660 (*n*); 5. Of the 26th of September 1679 (*o*); 6. Alliance of the 7th of October 1679 (*p*); 7. Convention on the passage through the

(*e*) Du Mont Corps Univ. Diplom. Tom. IV, P. II. p. 274.

(*f*) Ibid. Tom. V. P. II. p. 584.

(*g*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 251.

(*b*) Rouffet Supplem. au Corps Diplom. Tom. II. P. II. P. 334.

(*i*) An extract of this piece occurs in Arkenholzen's Essay towards a pragmat. History of Treaties. (a German work.)

(*k*) Du Mont. Tom. V. P. II. p. 642.

(*l*) Rouffet Supplem. Tom. II. P. I. p. 313.

(*m*) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 205. Mably, Droit Publ. de l'Europe, Tom. I. ch. ii. p. 87, 88.

(*n*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 219. Mably, Tom. I. P. II.

P. 93.

(*o*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 425. Mably, Tom. I. ch. iv. p. 211.

(*p*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 431.

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

Sound and the Belt, of the 28th of May 1680 (*g*); 8. Treaty of commerce of the 17th of March 1693 (*r*); 9. Treaty of peace of the 11th of June 1720 (*s*).

VI. With R U S S I A.

1. Treaty concerning salutes at sea, of the 30th of October 1730 (*t*); 2. Alliance of the 26th of May 1732 (*u*).

VII. With P O L A N D.

Alliance of the 28th of July 1657 (*x*).

VIII. With BRANDENBURGH and PRUSSIA.

Alliances. 1. Of the 7th of January 1658 (*y*); 2. Of 23d of December 1656 (*z*).

S E C T. LIV.

Celebrated
statesmen
and warri-
ors.

Among the eminent Danish statesmen and warriors, are recorded the two archbishops of Lund, Absolom or Axel Huide, and Andrew Simonis, who did very good service

(*g*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 2.

(*r*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 325.

(*s*) Ibid. Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 29. Mably, Tom. II. ch. viii. p. 184.

(*t*) Rouffet Supplem. Tom. II. P. II. p. 285.

(*u*) Ibid. Supplem. Tom. II. P. II. p. 334.

(*x*) Du Mont Tom. VI. P. II. p. 189.

(*y*) Ibid. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 201.

(*z*) Ibid. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 325.

to Waldemar I. Canute II. and Waldemar II. both with the sword and the pen, and by land and sea. Under John and Christian II. flourished admiral Soren Norby; under Frederic II. general Daniel Ranzaw; under Christian IV. Corfitz Uhlefeld; under Frederic III. Hannibal Scheftedt; under Christian V. Peter Schumacher, afterwards count of Greifenfeld (89).

S E C T. LV.

The most reputable Danish historians ^{Historians.} are, Saxo Grammaticus (90); chancellor Huitfeld (91); John Isaac Pontanus (92); John Meursius (93); baron Holberg (94); and Mr. Mallet (95).

(89) Short, but very judicious accounts of these eminent personages are to be found in *Portraits Historiques des Hommes illustres de Dannemarc. V. Parties. 1746.*

(90) *Historia Danicæ Libri XVI. Stephanus Johannis Stephanius recognovit notisque illustravit. Seræ, 1644. Fol.*

(91) *Dannimarkis Rigis Kronicke II. Deeler. Kiöbnhavn, 1652. Fol.*

(92) *Rerum Danicarum Historia, Libris IX. Amstelodami, 1631. Fol.*

(93) *Historicæ Danicæ Libri XIII. Amstelodami, 1638. Fol.*

(94) Author of a Complete History of Denmark, which has been thought worth translating into German.

(95) *Introduction à l'Histoire de Dannemarc, où l'on traite de la Religion, des Loix, des Mœurs, et des Usages, des anciens Danois. II. Tomes, à Geneve, 1763. 12mo. And likewise, Histoire de Dannemarc. IV. Tomes, à Geneve, 1763. 12mo.*

To these may be added,

Gesta et Vestigia Danorum extra Daniam, precipue in Oriente, Italia, Hispania, Gallia, Anglia, Scotia, Hibernia,

S E C T. LVI.

Accounts of
the state of
Denmark.

Accounts of the antient and present state of Denmark have been published by Mr. Moleſworth, envoy from England (96), Baron Holberg (97), Biſhop Pontoppidan (98), and many others (99).

Belgio, Germania, et Sclavonia, maximam partem ipſis Scriptorum non exoticorum minus quam domesticorum verbis adumbrata: in tres Tomos diſtincta, Lipſiæ et Havniæ, 1740, 1741. 8vo.

The XXXIId volume of the Engliſh Octavo Edition of the Modern Univerſal Hiſtory, likewise contains a ſhort hiſtory of Denmark; but this part of the work ſeems by no means to have fallen into proper hands; the writer not having made the leaſt uſe of the beſt and lateſt Daniſh Hiſtorians, as Huitfeld, Holberg, and Mallet.

(96) An account of Denmark, as it is in the year 1692, London, 1694. 8vo. A French tranſlation of this work came out in the ſame year, under the title of Etat preſent de Danemark: the author had been envoy from England to Denmark, but writing with ſuch freedom as to give offence, and not ſeldom on falſe grounds, two confutations of it ſoon appeared by an anonymous author, who ſeems likewise to have gone beyond his ſphere. They are written in Engliſh; the firſt is called “Denmark Vindicated;” the title of the other, is, “The Commonwealth’s-man Unmasked, &c. &c. Or a juſt Rebuke of the Account of Denmark.” The former is likewise tranſlated into French, with the title, “Deſenſe du Dannemarck,” &c. Cologne. See Buder’s Biblioth. Hiſt. Sel. cap. xxiii. § 12.

(97) Baron Holberg’s Civil and Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of Denmark and Norway, 1749, 4to. Tranſlated from the Daniſh original into German.

(98) Theatrum Daniæ veteris et hodiernæ, 2 Vols, 4to. but this author, not long ſince, by the king’s deſire, compoſed a much larger work, of which the firſt volume has been published under the title of “Danſke Atlas eller Konge Rike Dannemark med dets Naturlige Egenſkaber, &c. Kiöbenhavn, 1763, 4to. A German tranſlation of it has already appeared, but the learned author dying in the interim, it is uncertain whether the work will be continued.

(99) Among

(99) Among these must not be forgotten "Lettres sur la Dannemarc, à Geneve, 1757, 8vo. by M. Roger. These letters are said to be written with great truth and judgment, and have been translated into Danish and German.

The history of Denmark in the Modern Universal History, is preceded by a short description of the State of Denmark, liable to the same censure as the history itself. The compiler's only authority is Molesworth, and he seems a stranger to the very names of Holberg and Pontoppidan.

R E M A R K S

O N

The preceding CHAPTER of DENMARK,
by the learned Mr. H——.

Page 4. **T**HAT observation of Pontoppidan's, in the 10th note, concerning the leprosy, is not very exact: if such distemper reigned formerly in Denmark, as it now certainly does in Norway, Iceland, and the Ferro isles, it did not, nor does it proceed from the quantity, but from the quality of the fish; nor properly of the fish itself, but of the intestines, such as the liver of the cod-fish, which being most agreeable to the palate, are reckoned a great regale; but are oily and unwholesome, so that they corrupt the blood and juices, and prepare the body for a sort of leprosy, not quite so bad as the Oriental leprosy, yet seemingly of that same nature.

Ibid. l. 7. *Liberal.* Some parts having little or no Wood, not even for fuel.] Wood is very much wanted, particularly for fuel, in that part of Denmark, where they had conveniency of exporting it: some land-owners, after encumbering their estates by folly and extravagance, have cut down whole forests, and sold them to pay off their mortgages; others have done it out of avarice, to turn their woods into corn-fields; by which agriculture hath increased, and the forests decreased. But in the inland parts where wood could not be conveyed but by land-carriage, at a prodigious expence, there are woods still, of beech, sufficient to make fuel prodigious cheap, besides some oak-woods for ship-timber; tho' the latter not in such plenty, as hath been formerly.

P. 5. l. 11. *Pitcoal.*) Pitcoal we have not yet found enough to boast of, but are still in search of it. There is indeed some in the isle of Bornholm, but not of the best sort, nor in plenty; it is hard, and flatelike, therefore not easily worked. In our isles of Ferro are pitcoals of a better sort, and in some plenty; but troublesome to convey, because of the distance and somewhat difficult navigation. One good thing

thing is, that we have not very much occasion for it, but only in smith's forges: it is not our usual fuel; and all the countries round the Baltic supply us with what wood we want.

Sect. 6. p. 5. l. 19. *Dutchy of Sleswick*] this dutchy is a part of Jutland, therefore ought to be called, and is called in records, and public writings, South Jutland, the more as it is governed by laws, which were stiled anciently, and are to this day, "the Jutlandish law;" but as in some part of it the German language commonly obtains, and as the nobility are also possessed of estates in Holstein, this dutchy hath appeared to foreigners as a country different from Jutland.

Sect. 7. p. 8 l. 4. *Oaks—with which a considerable trade is carried on.*] This is a mistake: no trade at all is carried on with oaks, that is to say, none are exported out of the kingdom; indeed, the proprietor may use the oak upon his ground as he pleaseth, nay, may sell it for home service, such as for buildings &c. But if he hath a mind to export it, he must dispose of it to the king's admiralty, for a stated price. Neither is it true that Norway abounds with oak; it has hardly a sufficient quantity for the Danish navy. Denmark hath more oak than Norway; only it is pity that the forests of oak still preserved in Denmark, are not so near the sea and navigable rivers as could be wished; and hence it is that the Danish oak is of dearer purchase to the navy, than the foreign oak exported from the several countries round the Baltic.

Ibid. l. 12. *Norway's greatest Wealth consists in its metals.*] As I apprehend, its greatest wealth consists in its firs, and its fishes; though certainly its mines are considerable enough, and the tradition is, that many more silver mines might be found, if the inhabitants did not conceal their knowledge of them thro' fear of having their forests ruined by the miners.

Sect. 8. p. 11. l. 3. *Plenty of Grain.*] I do not remember to have heard much of this plenty. They may have a sufficiency; because I never heard that grain was carried to them from Denmark, as it must be every year to Iceland. They feed very much upon birds-eggs, of which they find great plenty on the tops of their high rocks, and which are said to be very delicious and wholesome.

Sect. 10. p. 14. l. 7. King Christian I. was originaly count of Oldenburg, and progenitor of three august families which now rule Denmark, Sweden, and Russia; but when he came to be count of Holstein, after his uncle the last count of Holstein (Holstein bearing not yet the title of a dutchy) as he had eleven years before been elected king of Denmark, he left Oldenburgh and Delmen-

horst to his younger brother Gerard, whose descendants ruled those counties a hundred and twenty years; till in anno 1667, that branch became extinct, and these territories fell to the king of Denmark, Christian V. Antient records show, that, in very remote ages, the counts of Oldenburg have been sometimes stiled arch-counts, which stile is now disused. However, emperors have more than once offered to raise them to the title of princes, but they never would accept it, chusing rather to be the most antient and powerful counts of the empire, than the youngest dukes. The counts of Holstein thought differently, and were desirous to be made dukes, a dignity which they have enjoyed these three hundred years. The house of Oldenburg is descended from the Saxon commander Wittekind, celebrated for his long wars with Charlemagne. Few histories in the Roman empire are better recorded than that of the ancient counts of Oldenburg, by two historiographers, Hamelman and Winkelmann. There is now a report, that the king of Denmark is going to exchange Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst for that part of Holstein, possessed by the grand-duke of Russia; which would be a very convenient bargain for both parties.

Ibid. l. 10. He that is lord lieutenant of Danish Holstein, (at present prince Charles of Hesse) is usually lord lieutenant of the dutchy of South-Jutland, commonly called Sleswick, but never governs at the same time the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst, which have their distinct governors, as they are separated from Holstein by the two rivers, the Elbe and the Weser, and the whole dutchy of Bremen between these two rivers. An excellent chorographical, and in part historical, description of Holstein, is wrote by one Dankwerth; a very scarce book.

Sect. 12. p. 18. l. 16. *Seizing on his person.*] The count surpris'd that warlike and victorious monarch in a treacherous manner, without any declaration of war; for he landed at a place where he knew the king used to hunt at that season, and under pretence of making him a visit, he seized an opportunity to kidnap him. It is true, the count had been sufficiently provoked by the king's behaviour to the countess, whom he left with that monarch during a pilgrimage which he undertook to the Holy-Land; the monarch, overcome by frailty, betrayed his trust, for which he paid very dear, having never prospered from that time, particularly after losing the battle at Bornhovet, by the treachery of the Dittmarshians who had joined his army. Before all these unhappy contingencies, he was a very renowned monarch; he had conquered all the countries round the Baltic, was master of Mecklenburgh, Pomerania, Prussia, Courland, and Livonia; had

had made Hamburgh and Lubeck pay homage to him; had instituted the most honourable order of the Dannebrogue, had re-established the Code of laws, called the "Justices Law," still subsisting in the dutchy of Sleswick; built the town of Stralsund; been founder of bishoprics and abbeys, &c.

Sect. 24. p. 43. l. 14. We Danes, when we want to speak accurately, in stylo curiæ, do not call our king's inauguration a coronation, but an anointment. David, and other kings in the theocracy, were anointed, but never crowned. The kings of Denmark, since 1660, have been crowned by none but themselves: the monarch solemnly puts the crown on his head, with his own hands, and then puts another crown on the queen consort's head: but they are anointed by the bishop, to shew by that pious token, that they want to be anointed by the Lord, and consecrated by his holy spirit, wisdom, and vigour, for that weighty task of ruling the nation: then the queen is anointed, because it is possible she may, in a case of minority, become queen-regent. If the king marries a second time, he crowns his second queen, but I know of no instance where his second queen has been anointed, when there is an heir to the crown by the former marriage,

P. 45. l. 6. None but the Roman emperor bore the title of majesty in those days. King Henry VIII. was only called his grace in the beginning of his reign. He came to the crown in 1509. King John of Denmark died in ann. 1513.

P. 59. sub fin. Sect. 33. The præpositi, or provosts, are a sort of deputy-bishops, to ease the bishop in a certain division of his diocese. For example, the bishop of Zealand hath (besides Copenhagen) thirty two provosts under him; each of them may have from six to fifteen churches under his inspection. The provost, with the rectors of his churches, decides, under the direction of the temporal magistrate, matrimonial matters and others belonging ad disciplinam ecclesiasticam; this is called a Consistorium; if the condemned party takes out a writ of error, the appeal goes to the bishop and all his provosts, who, when so assembled, under the direction of the lord lieutenant of the county, are called Ober-Consistorium, being a superior ecclesiastical court. The Danish Code giveth particular directions how all this is to be conducted. Each country church, generally speaking, hath but one clergyman; yet, when the congregation is numerous, the parish extensive, or sometimes provided with one or two chapels of ease, then there are two, nay three, clergymen, of which the rector is called Head-pastor; his assistant, if but one, is called either Capellanus, or Diaconus; if there be two, then the youngest is stiled Diaconus, and the eldest

Archidiaconus ; and there is a subordination between them, as well as difference of incomes ; but as to ordination there is no difference, they being all in priest's orders. Pluralities are unknown in Denmark, nor is a clergyman's absence from his parish allowed ; but if he grows old, or infirm, he may obtain leave to keep a curate at his own expence, i. e. a deputy, who is in Denmark called Capellanus pro Personâ, and must be ordained a priest, and who having no parish of his own, is without sustenance and bread, when the old or infirm gentleman dies ; but, if he hath behaved well, the bishop generally takes care to prefer him to a living. This case excepted, there is no such thing in Denmark, as conferring holy orders upon a student in divinity, before he hath got a curam animarum, in a parish assigned to him. In the interim, the young students are generally tutors of children in gentlemen's-houses, or strive to become parish-clerks ; for in Denmark (not in Germany) all parish-clerks are, or should be by law, sufficiently learned to become clergymen themselves, to the end that they may occasionally preach in the rector's room, though, not being ordained, they cannot administer sacraments, nor perform any other ecclesiastical function, than exercising themselves in preaching. These parish-clerks often become Capellani pro Personâ ; and these again Diaconi, or assistant-rectors ; and these, in the track of seniority, and according to merit, head pastors or rectors ; out of whom the provosts are taken. In Norway there are more poor livings than in Denmark ; but in Denmark they are generally pretty comfortable.

P. 64. in the Note 64. *Frustrated.*] It is not quite frustrated.

P. 67. l. 5. *Instituted.*] That is to say, he gave to the supreme court of justice its present new form. It is true, there had been a superior, and at that time final, decision of causes in Norway, from time immemorial. Much more might be said on that head ; let it suffice to observe in general, that in former times our king's made circuits thro' their realms, with their lords and learned council, and saw justice done with their own eyes. King Christian IV. was the last who did so. Frederic III. was prevented from it by the troublesome times : then came on the revolution, or change in the form of government. Then Frederic III. and his son Christian V. began to new mould, and modernize the old customs, which, by length of time were become imperfect, and uncouth for the present age ; and after revisions by the sages of the kingdoms, he settled every thing ; amongst the rest the administration of justice in its present order, brevity, and perspicuity, to the unspeakable happiness of the subjects.

P. 68. l. 17. *Horse-Districts.*] They are now (though an excellent institution for the military) abolished, on petition of the subject; and that corps spend their money amongst their fellow-subjects, which before, by a curious regulation of a land-oecconomy of their own, they used to spend only amongst themselves.

P. 70, 71.] In the military establishment in Denmark, (but not so much in Norway) there have been some alterations made since for better conveniency, and in part for oecconomy in the expences of the establishment. The parcelling out the army into regiments, battalions, and companies, hath here and there undergone a small alteration, in order to bring the whole to an uniformity, to make every military man equally content, and to ease the subject: perquisites have been abolished, and the salaries greatly heightened, so that now every officer knows what to trust to, and is upon an equal footing with his fellow-foldier in the same station; whereas, formerly, one captain would enjoy over-grown profits, and another captain of the same regiment being, perhaps, not so fortunately quartered, could live but poorly with his family, upon his moderate pittance. But the main army, particularly the general number of troops, remains what this pag. 70, 71. maketh it out. The only alteration of any consequence, but not yet quite finished, is this; that several regiments of horse, or cuirassiers, and of whom we had rather too many, have been converted into dragoons, as the English did the same some years ago; by which we can, for the future, keep in time of peace 7300 horse and dragoons for the same money, for which we used to keep 6184, and this already maketh 1116 horse difference; or else we need not maintain this surplus at all, but ease the subjects so much in their taxes.

P. 71. sect. 41. Gottorp is a castle somewhat fortified, but only for ornament, or for keeping a party of roving huffars, like several gentlemen's seats in that country, and not for maintaining a regular siege.

P. 73. in the Note 70. The name of Schilling very likely never came from England to Denmark, nor from Denmark to England. In the Danish language to this day, and no doubt formerly in the old English, Kill or Skill, is, and was respectively, the same as to divide; hence Schilling, in English Shilling, in Danish Skillung, signifies a division, a thing which divides, or cometh itself forth from the act of dividing, that coin being a division, or a small part of a larger denomination of money, either pound, dollar, guinea, ducat, or mark silver, &c. The German language useth a

term synonymous to it; it calls the smaller coins *Scheide-Muntze*, dividing-coins. From that northern term to *Skill*, cometh the English substantive, *Skill*, i. e. Judgment acquired by art or practice; because all judgment consists in *distinguenndo*, in well dividing and separating notions, in order to avoid confusion, and false conceptions; just as genius consisteth, in combining and comparing different notions, no matter whether right or wrong, so there be but a pleasing similarity.

Pfenninge, which might more etymologically be spelled *Pfanning*, is obviously the daughter, the Diminutivum, if you please, of the German word *Pfanne*, English a *Pan*, i. e. any metal beaten flat, and now-a-days more particularly a certain piece of kitchen-furniture. They were called *Pfenninge*, or *Pennies* in English, because they are little broad plates of copper. Innumerable are the instances where *pf.* and *P.* are interchanged in the two chief dialects of the Teutonic language: so often as the Low Germans (such as the ancient Saxons were) make use of the letter *P.* the High Germans convert it with a sort of aspiration, into *PF.* and pronounce it as the Greeks did their ϕ .

P. 74. A *Lubeck Schilling* is an English penny; and a *Danish Skilling* is an English halfpenny; there was formerly, not quite 120 years ago, a coin in Denmark, as much in vogue, as are here *Shillings*, but now rare to be met with, called *Rigets-Mark*, (the mark of the realms-money) worth little more than ten English pence; and equal to it is still, now-a-days, a *French livre*. Of that coin the name is still used in Denmark to this day, as a *modus computandi*: and of that *Rigets Mark*, the *Danish Skilling* is a division, making its twentieth part *netto*, as English *Shillings* make the twentieth part of that *modus computandi*, commonly called one pound sterling, because the one and the other skilleth, i. e. divides, the larger *Realms-Mark*, or *Libram*, into twenty parts. And now we have of the English *Shilling* and the *Danish Skilling* the quite simple etymology. That king *Canute* may have made use of English mint-masters, is very probable.

P. 85. l. 15. *Frederic V. abol:shed, &c.*] This was as generous an action as ever monarch performed, but here imperfectly related. His majesty advanced, out of his own privy purse, 1,250,000 dollars, (which in Denmark are no more a trifle than the same number of Pounds sterling in England, and go there pretty near as far) to buy all the *West-India company's* actions (and by that their charter) for the market-price of the day. And for what? to monopolize the trade to his crown? by

by no means ! but to make the whole nation a present of it, laying the trade, before confined to a particular company, open to every loving subject, who had a mind to engage in it. The benefit of this indulgence showed itself quickly ; for that trade, which before was in a lingering condition immediately began to flourish, and the sellers themselves were very glad of the bargain, especially as the king took upon himself the expence of the fortifications, that is of garrisoning them and keeping them in repair, as a right properly belonging to the crown, cumbersome and useles to a trading society.

P. 89. in fine. The whole note 87, must either be left out, or mended ; so that for "always," be put "very often."

P. 90. l. 8. The treasury and exchequer are not two different things, but two different names to the same thing. The words, *instituted by king Frederic IV.* must be left out. Their office was in being, and bore the same name already in Christian V's time many years. And, under the name of Schatz-Kamer, the same office hath existed for centuries. How can a kingdom, or a nation, be without a treasury ? The name of Schatz-Kamer, which it bore when the kings were elective, came, by degrees, out of vogue after the restoration of the ancient prerogatives of the crown. True it is, Frederick IV. who was himself a consummate financier, has made many excellent regulations in that office.

The present king hath, last February 1768, made two more subdivisions in it, immaterial to be mentioned. The office of Chief Secretary at War is at present, as some time ago, executed by commissioners, just as a king of England, according to pleasure, hath the seal of Great Britain administered most frequently by a lord chancellor, and another time by a lord keeper, and again sometimes by two, three, or four commissioners, of all which we have had instances within these thirteen years : and just as since half a century the high offices of lord high-treasurer and lord high-admiral have been, here in England, as well as in Denmark, executed by commissioners ; which either king may again order quite otherwise.

P. 97. At the conclusion. The author here might have mentioned, *Travels through Denmark* and some part of Germany, by way of Journal, in the *Retinæ of the English Envoy in 1702*, printed at London in 1707, for J. Taylor, and sold by W. Taylor at the Ship in St. Paul's Church-Yard, and A. Bell, at the the Bible and Cross-keys, in Cornhill. This book, though not quite free of all mistakes, to which a foreigner is liable, yet is guilty of as few as any description of Denmark yet extant, and quite impar-

impartial, neither favouring the country, as natives might be suspected to do, nor bent upon finding fault, as Moleworth maliciously and scurrilously does, in a manner visible to every eye. The author, who was secretary of the embassy to Mr. Vernon, then envoy to Denmark, seems to have been a lawyer, and hath made many curious remarks upon the Danish laws. It is a book in 8vo, of 431 pages.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. VIII.
OF SWEDEN.
SECT. I.

THE Swedes call their country Sve-^{Name.}rige, or sometimes Suea-Rike, which some derive from Suithur, or Suiur, the proper name of the Great Odin, so that it imports Sviurs, i. e. Odin's Kingdom, or Country (1). Others again think Sverige to be no more than See-Rike or Sio-Rike, i. e. Sea-kingdom, or Sealand (2). Anciently Sweden was known

(1) Others, however, reject this derivation. Vid. Verrilli, Not. in Gothrici et Rolfi, Hitt. p. 9, 10.

(2) This is affirmed by Dalin, the latest Swedish historian. He supposes Sweden to have been at first a cluster of islands, and mostly covered with water; by the gradual decrease of which, they became dry-land; and from this circumstance received their name as risen out of the sea.

by the name of Svithiod (3), from whence, probably, came the denomination of Suedia, used by some writers of the middle ages (4), and that of Schweden, and Sweden, common among the Germans, Dutch, and English. The Swedish nation itself is in its own language called Suenſha (5).

S E C T. II.

Situation,
limits, and
extent.

Sweden lies between the 56th and 69th degree of north latitude, and the 32d and 55th of east longitude; it is bounded southwards by the Baltic, and the gulf of Finland, and on the west by the North sea, and Norway. Northwards it confines on Norway-Lapland, and eastward on Ruffia-Lapland and Ruffia-Finland. It is about 200 Swedish miles in length, and 130 broad (a).

(3) This name was derived from Suidia, i. e. to burn. The primitive inhabitants used to cut down the forests, and burn the trees, using the ashes as manure for the land. Vide Vétel. l. c. p. 9. But Dalin will have Suithiod to be derived from Sui, sea, and Thiod, folk; which signifies sea-folk. Dalin's Suea-Rikes Hist. Deel. I. cap. i. p. 1, 2. et c. iii. p. 56.

(4) As Adamus Bremenſis and Helmoldus. Vid. Grotii Hist. Goth. Vandal. & Longobard. in Prolog. p. 6.

(5) And as some conceive from the word Suen, which imports young, noble, a soldier. Loccen. Antiquit. Sueco-Goth. Lib. I. cap. i. p. 8.

(a) Tuneld, p. 1.

S E C T. III.

The weather is not, in all parts, alike. Air and weather.
 In the southern provinces it is pretty temperate; but in the northern, the summers are very hot, and the winters extremely severe: the former is owing to the length of the days, and the latter to the north and east winds, which sweep over large tracts of snow and ice; yet it is these winds, and particularly the north, which keep the air pure, and healthy (*b*).

S E C T. IV.

A great part of the country is over-run with mountains. It has also many standing Mountains, lakes, and rivers. lakes, of which the Maler is the largest (*6*); and several considerable rivers, the principal of which go by the general name of Elf, and are distinguished by the countries which they water; as Gotisca-Elf, Dal-Elf, Kymene-Elf, Uleo-Elf; but few are navigable, by reason of the great and many water-falls.

(*b*) For the advantages of the Swedish climate, see Tunneld, p. 8.

(*6*) Is twelve Swedish miles in length, and full of small islands to the number of 1290. King Frederick I. caused it to be stocked with gudgeons and tenches for propagating these kinds, which before were unknown in Sweden.

S E C T. V.

Fruitful-
ness.

Sweden produces every thing necessary and comfortable for human life (7). Some parts afford good pasture, but both the horned cattle and horses are small. The breed of sheep, the wool of which is very coarse, has been amended by importing Spanish, English, and Eiderstadt rams, and ewes (8). Here are deer of all kinds, even to the elk and rein-deer; with woodcocks, partridges, moorfowl, snipes, geese, ducks, &c. On the other hand, the forests, wastes, and mountainous parts, are full of bears, wolves, foxes, lynxes, martens, and other beasts of prey. The sea and rivers afford fish in such quantities, that, besides a plentiful home-consumption, it is also an article of exportation.

It is only the southern provinces that produce fruit trees (9). If any are found in the north, they are of the worst kinds, and scarce deserve that name. The many fo-

(7) So says Tuneld, p. 9. but he laments that his countrymen are not satisfied with the products of their country, or rather despise them; and prudently wishes that the Swedish hardiness and vigour were not impaired by foreign delicacies, which enervate both mind and body.

(8) He and she-goats have likewise been brought from Angora, in order to procure mohair. Tuneld. p. 7.

(9) Mulberry-trees have been planted near Lund, and seem to answer.

rests of pine and firs, are continually lessening; such numbers of trees being burnt for charcoal, pot-ash, tar, pitch, and whole tracts of forest lands for tillage. Some parts, and especially the most southern, afford corn, but by no means enough for the whole country. The poor people in the northern provinces, the soil being sandy or stony, or marshy, and consequently unfit for tillage, make shift with a kind of bread made from the pounded rind of pines or fir, or straw and roots (10). Besides corn some parts likewise produce flax, hemp (11), and tobacco (12).

But the deficiencies in the animal and vegetable kingdoms, are amply made up by the mineral. Sweden exports iron, steel, copper (13), brass, sulphur, alum, vitriol,

(10) The manner of making this bread may be seen in Busching's Geography, Vol. I.

(11) Mr. Tuneld informs us, that the culture of flax and hemp is very much increased; and the flax growing in the neighbourhood of Wadstena is of so good a kind, as to be used in the cambrick manufacture there. Tuneld, p. 16.

(12) Most of the Swedish towns of any consequence have at present large tobacco plantations. Ibid.

(13) Sweden particularly abounds in copper. The Falun copper-mine, is thought to be the largest mine in the universe, and Gustavus Adolphus used to call it his treasury. In the year 1687, it fell in, which accident was attended with great damages. Pet. Elvii Delin. Magnæ Fodinæ Cupro Montanæ, p. 3—28. That prince entertained a conceit that copper might be brought to a higher value, and rendered at least, equal to silver, and had some thoughts of making the

marble,

marble, &c. and for its own use has silver (14), lead, and some gold (*c*). In some places are mineral waters, and salt is procured from the sea-water, but scantily.

S E C T. VI.

Sweden anciently reached from the frozen sea to Oerefand, and from the Seve or Norway rocks, to the Baltick. It was commonly divided into four kingdoms; the first Sweden, properly so called; the second, the kingdom of Gothland; the third Helsingeland; and the fourth Warmeland (*d*).

According to the modern geographical division, it consists of five principal provinces, Sweden, Gothland, Nordland, Lapland, and Finland.

Sweden contains Upland, Sudermanland, Nerike, Westmanland, Dalen or Dalicaria. Gothland is divided into East, West, and South-Gothland. East-Gothland, consists of East-Gothland particularly so called,

trial in conjunction with Bethelm Gabor, prince of Transylvania. *Memoires concernant Christine, Reine de Suède.* Tom. III. p. 194.

(14) The greatest silver mine is near Sala. In the year 1673, it produced 7998 pounds of silver, which indeed was its richest produce, having since that time been continually decreasing. *Groenwall, Argenti fodinæ ut & Urbis Salaræ delineatio,* p. 64.

(*c*) Funeld, p. 10.

(*d*) Dalius, *Suea-Rikes, Hist. Del. I. c. xiv. p. 400.*

Smo-

Smoland, the island of Oeland, and the island of Gothland. To western Gothland belong West-Gothland proper, Warmeland, Dalen or Daland, and Bohus-Lehn. South-Gothland contains Schonen, Haland, and Blekingen.

Nordland is divided into seven small provinces, Gastricland, Halsingland, Medelpad, Jamtland, Harjedalen, Angermannland, West-Bothnia.

To Lapland belong the six following districts, Asele or Angermannlands and Jaemtlands-Lappmarc, Umea-Lappmarc, Pittea-Lappmarc, Lulea-Lappmarc, Zornera-Lappmarc, Remi-Lappmarc.

Finland consists of seven provinces, Finland particularly, Aland, East-Bothnia, Tavastland, Nyland, Savolax, Kymmene-gards-Lehn.

But according to the Swedish constitution, the kingdom is divided into twenty-four captainships. 1. Upland, C. 2. Stockholm, C. 3. Scaroborg, C. 4. Abo and Bioerneborg, C. 5. Groneberg, C. 6. Joenkeping, M. 7. Westmanland, C. 8. Kymmenegard, M. 9. East-Gothland, C. 10. Sundermanland, C. 11. Nyland and Tavastehus, M. 12. Elfsborg, M. 13. Calmar and Oeland, M. 14. Kopparberg, C. 15. Nerise and Wearmeland, C. 16. West-

Nordland, M. 17. West-Bothnia, C. 18. East-Bothnia, M. 19. Gothland, M. 20. Malmohus, M. 21. Christianstadt, M. 22. Blekingen, M. 23. Halland, C. 24. Gothenburg and Bohuslehn, M. (15). The captainships are divided into Harader or jurisdictions, and these into parishes (Sokn).

S E C T. VII.

Depend-
encies.

The crown of Sweden was formerly possessed of very considerable dependencies, as Livonia, Esthonia, Ingermanland; and in Germany, the dutchies of Bremen, and Verden, and the western parts of Pomerania: but all these, a corner of Pomerania, and the town of Wismar excepted, were lost in the great northern war which lasted from 1700, to 1721.

S E C T. VIII.

Summary of
the history
of Sweden.

Some Swedish historians make Sweden to have been peopled immediately after the deluge, and Magog, Japhet's second son, the founder and first sovereign: after him his son Sueno reigned over the Swedes, and Gethar over the Geths or Goths, the royalty farther descending to their issue (*e*).

(15) The captainships marked with C, are filled up by the civil, and those with M, by the military establishment.

(*e*) Jo. Magni Goth. Sueonumque, Hist. Lib. i. cap. iv. v. p. m. 28, 29.

But as nothing of this can be proved authentically, others, with more probability, bring down the commencement of the Swedish monarchy to the second century of the Christian Era, Yngue son to the great ^{150.} Odin being the first monarch, and leaving his dignity to his posterity. Those first rulers indeed were only stiled judges, (Drottars): the ^{400.} first who assumed the title of king was Dygue; (*f*), one of whose successors, Ingiald Illrade, raised such an universal hatred against him by his tyranny and oppression of the Fylkis-Konige (16), that upon his decease his son Olof Tratelja was set aside and dri- ^{775.} ven out of the country, which put an end to the lineage of Yngue, the supposed first monarch. On the other hand, Isvar Widfamne, or Widfadmi, a Danish prince, who had invaded the country subject to Ingiald, was chosen king; he likewise subdued the greater part of Denmark; and both kingdoms remained under the descendants ^{860.} of his daughter Oda, till Biorn and Sigurd, the sons of Ragnar Lodbrok, made a parti-

(*f*) Dalin, P. I. c. xi. xii.

(16) These were petty princes, but acknowledged the king as sovereign. Their origin is dated from those very remote times when every thing was carried by violence, and one head of a tribe submitted to a more powerful, that under his protection he might oppress and pillage his inferiors. Dalin, cap. i. Part IV.

tion of them, by which the former had Sweden and the latter Denmark.

225. It was a custom among Biorn's successors for two kings to reign jointly, and a long time did it continue. This is the period when Christianity began to spread itself in
1001. Sweden, particularly after Olof, surnamed
1059. Scotkonung, had embraced it. Biorn's male
1067. issue failed in Olof's son Edmund the elder,
1075. upon which his son-in-law Stenkil, Jarl of (17) West-Gothland was elected king; and, on his demise, Hakan, or Haquin, Jarl of Warmeland; and Inge, Stenkil's son, was afterwards associated to him. This prince being very zealous for Christianity the Pagans drove him out of the country, chusing in his stead Suen, commonly called Blot-Suen, his son-in-law, and a pagan. Inge,
1080. however, defeating Blot-Suen, recovered the crown, which after the death of king Haquin he held jointly with his brother Halfstan. The last of king Stenkil's line was Ragwald, grandson to Inge.

1134. Kol Jarl, son of king Blot-Suen was now
1136. chosen king, and succeeded by his son Suerker. After his decease, Eric Bonde whose
1138. mother Cecilia was king Blot-Suen's daugh-

(17) This word signifies one of the elders of the country, from among whom were chosen the rulers and generals. Dalin. P. I. cap. vii.

ter, was likewise advanced to the crown by election. He forced the Finlanders to embrace Christianity, and conferred great privileges on the clergy and churches, for which after his death he was not only canonized, but declared Sweden's tutelary saint. ^{1156.} At the ensuing election of a prince the Swedes and Goths disagreed; the former favoured Canute a son of king Eric, and the latter were for making choice of Charles, ^{1162.} king Suerker's son. At length, a diet held at Upsal passed a resolution, that the kings of the two families should be chosen alternately, and Charles had the precedence; but this regulation caused great disturbances in the kingdom, and was productive of many treacheries, and even murders, in the two royal families, by which they soon destroyed one another.

The Suerker line failing in John I. and ^{1222.} that of Eric, in Eric Laspe; Waldemar, a son of Birger Yarl, of the celebrated family ^{1250.} of the Folkungers (18), and princess Ingeburg king Eric's sister, was elected king, but being a minor, his father had the regency, and held it till his death. This Bir- ^{1266.}

(18) This family is said to be descended from an Englishman named Folke Filbiter, who left that kingdom upon the Norman conquest, while others make no manner of doubt of its being of Swedish origin.

ger had done great services to Sweden, and, as king Eric's general, reduced all Finland. King Waldemar now took the reins of government, but after some years was deposed by his brother, Magnus Ladulas, who got himself confirmed by the states. He was succeeded by his son Birger who brought Carelia under the Swedish dominion, and at the same time to the knowledge of Christianity. This prince had great disputes with his brothers Eric and Waldemar, to the former of whom their father had given Upland, and to the latter Finland; and having insidiously got their persons into his hands, he clapped them in prison where they were starved to death. This unnatural cruelty filled the states of Sweden with such indignation, that they drove him out of the country, beheaded his son Magnus, and conferred the crown on Magnus son to prince Eric, a minor, who by his mother Ingeburg, daughter of Haquin VII. king of Norway, inherited likewise Norway. During the disturbances in Denmark under king Christopher II. Sweden, taking advantage of the juncture, purchased Schonon, Halland, and Bleckingen; but Magnus having restored these provinces to Waldemar III. king of Denmark without any equivalent (19), and

(19) For which he was nick-named Smeck, i. e. the diminisher.

meditating an arbitrary government in Sweden by that king's assistance, the states of the kingdom deposed him, after first joining with him Eric his eldest son, and on his demise ^{1363.} with Haquin the younger. But this dutiful prince rather than forsake his father, chose to undergo the same fate, and both were obliged to renounce all claims to the crown ^{1371.} of Sweden. Haquin, however, retained Norway.

The Swedes, in the mean time, had chose for their king, Albert, prince of Mecklenburg, son to king Magnus's sister. But his saddling the subjects, and particularly the nobility, with heavy taxes, and bringing numbers of the German nobility into the country, together with his manifest partiality to them, made many male-contented, who entered into a confederacy with Margaret, queen of Denmark. A war soon after breaking out between that princess and king Albert, they joined the Danish army at the battle of Falkoping, where Albert being taken prisoner, Margaret was acknowledged queen of Sweden. ^{1388.}

This princess prevailed on the states of the kingdom to declare Eric (20) duke of Po- ^{1396.}

(20) His proper Christian name was Henry, but Margaret altered it to Eric, as a sort of favourite name among the northern people.

merania, and grandson to her elder sister Ingeburg, her successor and king of Sweden. Immediately after which she likewise formed the Calmar-Union between the three kingdoms, which was highly disadvantageous to Sweden, it being now treated as a province of Denmark. If Margaret found means to keep the Swedes in subjection during her life, they soon revolted against her successor king Eric; and though he renewed the union of Calmar, it was of no continuance; the Swedes seized the first opportunity to shake off this power, and made Charles Cnutson administrator of the kingdom. Eric having likewise alienated the Danes and Norwegians from him, saw himself obliged to relinquish all the three northern kingdoms, and for a time turn freebooter in the island of Gothland, which he at length yielded to the Danes, between whom and Sweden it frequently proved a bone of contention.

After Eric's flight, the Danes and Norwegians elected for their king his sister's son Christopher, Palatine of the Rhine and duke of Bavaria, to which choice the Swedes afterwards acceded; but upon his death, they receded from the union, and conferred their crown on the abovementioned Charles Cnutson. This prince happening to quarrel with the

the

the clergy and the nobility, they forced him to quit the kingdom, and submitted themselves to Christian I. whom the Danes and Norwegians had chosen for their king. But Christian neglecting to keep up a good understanding with the clergy, Charles was called home, and received as king; yet within the space of a year, he was again deposed by the influence and power of the clergy, and retired to Finland. He, however, made an effort to reinstate himself, and at length, had the good fortune to die king of Sweden. Sten Sture, whom king Charles a little before his death had nominated administrator of the kingdom, and the states afterwards raised to the throne, successfully defended his country against all the attempts of Christian I. After Christian's decease, his son John was, indeed chosen king of Denmark and Norway, and likewise of Sweden; but under certain conditions, among which, was the cession of the island of Gothland. But failing to make these conditions good, it was many years before he got possession of the kingdom, and, at length, he owed it to the superiority of his arms, and the variances between the administrator and the council. His royalty was of short continuance, being within a few years after driven from the throne, and during his life, the Swedes

conti-

continued under the government of their administrator.

1501.

1520.

At length, his son Christian II. after a successful battle with the Swedes, was acknowledged their king; but his causing, immediately after his coronation, so many innocent persons to be put to death at Stockholm, and over all the kingdom, provoked the Swedes to a general revolt. Their leader was Gustavus Vasa, a young nobleman of the ancient royal blood, whom they first chose administrator of the kingdom, and soon after advanced to the throne; and, thus the union of Calmar came to a final period.

1521.

1527.

1527.

King Gustavus introduced the Protestant religion into Sweden, totally abolishing the papacy; and, at the diet of Westeras, the states conferred the hereditary succession on his male descendants. Accordingly he was succeeded by his eldest son Eric XIV. who availing himself of the commotions in Livonia, made a conquest of Esthonia. He had not the like good fortune in his war with Denmark, but was still more unfortunate in his contests with his brother John, who dethroned, and imprisoned him, and at length had him put to death in his confinement. John III. who had been acknowledged king by the states, made

1550.

1561.

1565.

1568.

1575.

made the restoration of popery in Sweden his leading project; and, in order to pave his way to the crown of Poland, had his eldest son Sigismund brought up in the catholic religion; which so far succeeded, that upon the death of king Stephen Bathori, he ^{1587.} was actually chosen sovereign of that kingdom.

Thus, on John's demise, Sigismund saw himself king of Poland and Sweden; but ^{1592.} being bent on introducing both popery and arbitrary power into the latter, the Swedes threw off their allegiance, and declaring him and his issue to have forfeited the crown, elected his father's brother, Charles ^{1604.} duke of Sudermanland. This prince amidst the disturbances which then prevailed in Russia, made himself master of Ingermannland and Carelia, whereas, his other wars ^{1608.} with Poland and Denmark, did not answer his intentions.

But his son and successor, the great Gus- ^{1611.} tavus Adolphus carried the glory and happiness of the Swedish nation, to the very summit. At the peace of Stolbova, concluded with Russia, he retained Ingermann- ^{1617.} land and Kexholm: he reduced Livonia, and ^{1628.} part of Prussia, both which were ceded to him at the six years truce. The thirty years war afterwards breaking out, he ^{1630.} turned

turned his arms against the emperor Ferdinand II. and became the deliverer of the liberties of Germany and of the protestant religion. This excellent prince is supposed to have been basely murdered at the battle of Lutzen, the victory, however, remaining on his side: his name and memory will be ever honoured by all lovers of truth and freedom. Under his daughter Christiana, to whom the succession had been secured in 1627, the German war was carried on with a brave perseverance, and after the crown of France likewise embarked in it, was crowned with success. In the mean time jealousy and other causes, occasioned a rupture with Denmark, in which the Swedish arms had such a series of advantages that, at the peace of Bromsebroe, the enemy was obliged to cede Jemteland, Harjedalen, with the islands of Gothland and Oesel, but Halland only as security for thirty years; and likewise to grant an exemption from paying toll in the Sound and Belt. The German war was soon after terminated to the great advantage and honour of Sweden, which, at the peace of Munster in 1648, obtained Bremen and Verden, Western Pomerania, and Wismar, with five millions of dollars, and was made a state of the empire.

Queen

Queen Christina having brought the states ^{1650.} of Sweden to declare her cousin Charles Gustavus, her successor, resigned the crown, quitted the kingdom, and made a formal profession of the Roman Catholic religion. ^{1654.}

Charles Gustavus, the new king, took occasion, from the protests of John Casimir, king of Poland, against his being raised to the throne of Sweden, to make war with Po- ^{1655.} land. His singular good fortune in this undertaking drew on him the envy of all his neighbours, and open hostilities from Den- ^{1657.} mark. But Charles Gustavus had ample revenge, suddenly invading Holstein, Sleswick, and Jutland, which he reduced in the first attack, and soon after, all the Danish islands. This obliged the Danes to come into a very disagreeable peace at Ros- ^{1658.} child. But he soon after renewed the war, intending to make Denmark a province of Sweden. In this attempt, however, he was frustrated by the succours which the Danes received from the emperor, the United Provinces, and Brandenburg; a disappointment which is thought to have hastened Charles's death. He was succeeded by his ^{1660.} son Charles XI. who being a minor, a regency was appointed; in the beginning of it a peace was concluded with Poland at Oliva, and with Denmark at Copenhagen.

By

By the former Livonia was ceded to Sweden; and at the latter, it obtained Schonen, Halland, Bleckingen, and Bohuslehn. Lewis XIV. having invaded the Spanish Netherlands, and pursuing his conquests with a very rapid career, Sweden entered into an alliance with England and the United Provinces, to maintain the balance of Europe. This occasioning a war between France and the two latter, the Swedes sided with France; upon which the empire, Denmark, and Brandenburg, uniting, stripped Sweden of its German possessions. But the French procured them all to be restored again.

Charles XI. afterwards availed himself of the dissensions between the states of Sweden, for abolishing the council's power, and acquiring an unlimited prerogative. He was succeeded by his son Charles XII. who had no sooner entered on the government than he found himself, without any cause given on his part, engaged in a threefold war, with Denmark, Poland, and Russia. The first he terminated with great moderation; in the second he dethroned his adversary Augustus II; and intended a like catastrophe to the Czar; but the defeat at Pultawa quashed all the fruits of his nine years astonishing victories. The kings of Den-

Denmark, and Poland, who, had come to an agreement, but were not reconciled with him, took up arms again; and his rejecting the measures proposed by other powers for the neutrality of his German possessions, increased the number of his enemies, namely, Prussia and Brunswick-Luneburg, by whom the Swedes were totally driven out of Germany. Charles XII. after spending above half his life amidst the continual agitations of war, was shot before Fredericksahl in Norway. He was one of the greatest heroes of his own, or any age, had he behaved with moderation, he would have saved his country from severe losses and distresses, and left a less sullied reputation (21).

The states of Sweden conferred the crown on his younger sister Ulrica Eleo-

(21) I cannot here omit the singular judgments passed on Charles XII. by two celebrated Frenchmen. Montesquieu, affecting a witticism, says of him, "He was not Alexander, but he would have been Alexander's best soldier." Spirit of Laws, B. X. ch. xiv. Mr. Voltaire delivers himself thus. "The present opinion is, that Charles XII. deserved to be Peter the Great's first soldier." Hist. of Russia under Peter the Great. Tom. I. Pref. p. 2. Every body sees that Voltaire's conceit is borrowed from Montesquieu; but he is mistaken himself, and deceives others in giving out that indecent judgment to be the general way of thinking. A greater, and royal author, who, in things of this nature, is a more capable judge than either of them, terms the Swedish hero, "the Alexander of the North, who, with the king of Macedonia's good fortune, would have been like him in every thing."

nora;

nora ; and, at the same time, made use of this opportunity for repealing the unlimited prerogative. The government's first care was to restore peace, which, as affairs then stood, could not be done but with great
1719. loss. To the elector of Brunswick Luneburg were ceded Bremen and Verden ; to Prussia, part of Pomerania, as far as the Pene. The capital article with Denmark was Sweden's giving up its exemption from the Sound and Belt tolls ; and Russia retained Livonia, Esthonia, Ingermannland, Wyburg, and Kexholm. This last peace was concluded by king Frederic I. to whom the queen his consort, had, by consent of the states (1720), resigned the government. The repose which followed this long and very ruinous war, Sweden employed in restoring and improving its domestick condition, and the advancement of trade, manufactures, and tillage ; and kept itself clear of every thing that had a tendency to war. But these peaceable measures, on a new treaty of subsidy with France, and an alliance with the Ottoman Porte, no longer prevailed. It was hoped that, at least, part of the provinces which had been yielded to Russia, might be recovered. Hereupon
1741. a war was resolved on and begun ; but so unfortunately carried on, that, in a very short

short time, all Finland was lost, and the kingdom reduced to extreme distress.

Queen Ulrica Eleonora dying without issue at the beginning of the war 1741, the states proceeded to the choice of a successor, which at the strong recommendation of the court of Russia, fell on Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstein and bishop of Lubec : in return the czarina consented to a very generous peace, contenting herself with Kymmenegard and Nyflot, and giving back all Finland. ^{1743.}

Upon the death of Frederic I. the successor to the throne assumed the government ; but yet not without some opposition, on account of misunderstandings between him and the great council of the kingdom. A conspiracy, formed during the ferment, and which aimed at a total change of the constitution, was discovered, and the accomplices severely punished. ^{1751.}

A war breaking out between Prussia and Austria, the crown of Sweden entered into an alliance with the latter, France, and Russia, against Prussia ; which accordingly was attacked under colour of guarantying the peace of Westphalia, and with a view of reducing Pomerania. But Russia receding from the alliance, this scheme miscarried ; and Sweden, after a burthensome ^{1757.} ^{1762.}

war, saw itself obliged to come into a peace, which did not add a foot of land to it.

S E C T. IX.

Character
of the
Swedes.

The Swedes are strong-built, vigorous, and hardy. They have likewise a great disposition and genius, together with indefatigable application for every useful art and science, in which improvements of great utility are owing to them. In the common course of life, they are temperate and frugal, but on proper occasions are far from grudging decent expences, which they sometimes carry even to splendor. They are naturally serious and reserved, and even subject to suspicion and mistrust; but by intercourse with foreigners and travelling they are enlivened, and become more conversable. They have a strong love for their country and liberty, but at the same time are very faithful subjects to kings, whose measures are agreeable to the ends of government. The Swedes have in all ages been celebrated as a martial and brave people (22), and they make excellent soldiers both horse and foot (g). It has been

(22) *Virtutem suam per vicinas gentes sic circumtulere (Sueci) ut illius fama nullis sint secundi, bellandi vero arte ac industria cunctas antecedant.* 10. Schefferi Memorab. Suet. Gentis Exempl. c. xv. p. 94.

(g) Puffendorf's Introduction to the History of Sweden. De Real Science du Governm. Part I. Tom. II.

observed that in the late wars between the Swedes and Danes, the former have had advantage by land, and the latter by sea.

A Swedish writer commends his countrywomen for virtue, chastity, industry, and good housewifery, adding, that the wives are not only true to their husbands, but even obedient (*b*).

S E C T. X.

The Swedish language, like most others, Language; has undergone so many alterations, that there is scarce any affinity between the modern and the antient. It was formerly observed, as a common foible of the Swedes, that they disfigure (*i*) their language with a number of German, French, and other foreign words (23): but no such charge can be brought against the present Swedish literati, who write in a very pure and elegant stile. The press makes use of German characters, though, of late, many books are published in Roman types. Antiently the Swedes had a singular kind of characters,

(*b*) Tuneld, P. XIII.

(*i*) Vid. Nicol. Stobaei Observat. circa hodiern. Ling. Suecam. in præf. p. 2, 3. et Sect. XI. p. 33. 34.

(23) King John had already taken notice of this fault, and at the diet of Calmar in 1587, recommended to his son Sigismund the improvement of the Swedish language, and not to countenance the mixture of any foreign words with it.

called Runic; and to this very day, many tomb-stones are found with inscriptions in these characters; on which account they are called Runensteine, i. e. Runic stones (24). Several places have likewise square Runic staves, with perpetual almanacks cut on them (*k*).

S E C T. XI.

Number of
inhabitants.

Sweden is far from being peopled suitably to its extent; all the towns in the whole kingdom do not exceed a hundred and two; and all the inhabitants, in town and country, not three millions (*l*). Some, indeed, reduce this number to two millions (*m*): but this very probably is going too low; for in the year 1760, the males in the several Swedish provinces, exclusive of Pomerania, were found to be 1,127,938; and females 1,255,175; consequently of both sexes

(24) Some learned Swedes attribute great antiquity to these Runic stones, and date the origin of them from the remote ages of paganism. Kilian. Stobæus de Monumentis Lapidariis, § xv. xvi. xvii. xxii. But Olaus Celfsus, in his judicious Inquiry into the Antiquity of the Runic Stones, finds, that most of them come within the Christian era, and that the number of those, the age of which cannot be precisely determined, is but very small. He has published in the Swedish Transactions, several dissertations, under the title of, "Monumenta quædam Sueo-Gothica temporibus suis restituta." See years 1726, 1727, 1728, 1730, 1733, 1736.

(*k*) Tuneld, P. XIII.

(*l*) Ibid. P. XIV.

(*m*) Sufmilche's Divine Oeconomy.

2,383,113, (25). Of so great a deficiency in population the causes are partly the former long wars, and the very nature and police of the country, not to mention certain distempers, particularly of children, which of late have swept away great numbers (26).

S E C T. XII.

The Swedish nobility is very numerous, Nobility. and has great privileges. The difference between upper and lower nobility was unknown till Eric XIV. who, at his coronation in 1561, created the orders of counts and barons, and thus gave beginning to the upper nobility, making three of the counsellors of state, Suante Sture, Peter Brahe, and Gustavus Ros, counts; and the other nine counsellors Gustavus Stenbock, Sten Lowenhaupt, Birger Grip, Gabriel Oxenstierna, Lars Flemming, Charles Gere, Joran Gere, Nicholas Horne, and Eric

(25) The government in 1749, appointed commissioners for numbering the inhabitants, and examining into the state of population; and the Royal Academy of Sciences laid down a method of proceeding in this affair. Swedish Transactions for April, May, June 1764.

(26) The abovementioned commission among these illnesses makes particular mention of the quinzey, (Angina) which is said not to have been known in Sweden till the year 1755. Dan. Wilke Diss. de Angina Infantum in patria recentioribus annis observata, Upsal, 1764. 4to.

Stenbock, barons (*n*). The number of counts and barons has since been considerably increased (27), and queen Christina particularly was extremely lavish of these honours; which, growing common and being often conferred on the unworthy (*o*), have lost a great part of their lustre; she is charged with having ennobled not less than 400 families (*p*). The present noble families in Sweden, of whom no small number are foreign (28), amount to 2000 (*q*).

Burghers,
and peasants.

The other inhabitants consist of burghers and peasants; the latter either pay Zins, or rent, for their grounds, and are therefore called Zins boors; or hold them as their absolute property, which entitles them

(*n*) Dalin, P. III. vol. I. c. ix.

(27) In the year 1734, the counts amounted to seventy-eight, and the barons to 209; and in 1755, the former had been increased to 86, and the latter to 237.

(*o*) Anecdotes de Suede, p. 38, 39.

(*p*) Mem. concern. Christine Reine de Suede, Tom. III. P. 204.

(28) Many foreigners have been created nobles since the XIIth century. The present computation is, that the nobility consists of a hundred families of great antiquity; of eight hundred and ten, who have risen to nobility by holding great employments; seven hundred seventy-two by the sword; and fifty-two by the pen. The foreign families are ninety-two German, sixty-eight Livonian, fifty-three Scotch, twenty-four Danish, ten French, four Polish, and four from Courland. Suea Rikes Ridderkaps och Adels Wapn-bock, Stockholm, 1764.

(*q*) Mem. concern. Christine Reine de Suede, Tom. III. p. 204.

to the distinction of Free and State boors (29).

S E C T. XIII.

The prerogative has from the most antient times been limited and subordinate to the laws ; the form of government, particularly since the introduction of Christianity, having a great mixture of aristocracy (*r*). During the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, the power of the prelates and nobility was grown to such a height, as to ballance that of the sovereign (30). They carried every thing before them at the diets, the burghers and peasants being seldom called to those assemblies, except when they wanted to make use of force (*s*). But since the time of Gustavus I. who rescued the kingdom from the tyranny of Christian II. chiefly by the assistance of the commonalty and rustics, the towns and peasants have been ever summoned to the diet, and their antient privileges restored to them, in consideration of their important

Antient
constitution
of Sweden.

(29) Villanage, which antiently obtained in Sweden, was totally abolished in 1335, by a law of King Magnus Smeck. Dalin. II. cap. xi.

(*r*) Jac. Wilde Suec. Hist. pragm. c. iii. § ii. xvii. p. 317.

(30) In a resolution of the diet of Calmar in 1483, we have these words " Jeder guter mann geistlich und weltlich, soll Konig uber seine eigene Bauern seyn. Dalin." Del. II. c. xvii. p. 710.

(*s*) Id. Ibid.

services. This gave rise to a mixed government, composed of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy.

As the king could transact no very weighty affairs without the consent of the states, there was assigned to him a perpetual council, consisting of the bishops, who considered themselves as counsellors of state *ex officio*, and twelve lay persons of distinction (*t*). In the turbulent times during the union of Calmar, when the nation sometimes had a king, and sometimes was without, the counsellors of state engrossed both the rights of the crown, and those of the people; so that the diets were superseded, and the council of state, in conjunction with the king or the administrator of the kingdom, made laws and issued ordinances without in the least consulting the states. The council of state was supposed to represent that body, and its consent accounted the consent of the whole people (*u*); making compacts in the people's name with the kings at their election, deposing and reinstating them (*x*).

But the bishops, who had ever been the principal or most powerful members of the

(*t*) Wilde, c. iii. § ii. § xxvi.

(*u*) Ibid. p. 435, 448.

(*x*) Ibid. § xxvii. p. 448, 454.

council of state, being after the reformation excluded, the council underwent a change, and became more dependent on the king, who now took the nomination of the counsellors of state into his own hands (y); since which time the number of them has not been fixed, and queen Christina increased it to forty.

The principal members of the council of state are the five great officers, the chief justice, the marshal, the admiral, the chancellor, and the treasurer (31). These after the death of Gustavus Adolphus acquired great power, which during the successive minorities of queen Christina (32) and of Charles XI. they did not neglect to strengthen and increase.

Thus the prerogative hitherto appears to have been limited, however not always alike, as the kings, more or less, recommended themselves to the confidence and

(y) Wilde, § iii. § xxxiii. p. 566. 567.

(31) *Ib.* c. iii. § ii. § xxvi. p. 343, observes, that the chief justice, marshal, and chancellor, were formerly court-officers; and that the council of state's view in admitting them as members, was to strengthen that assembly with the several powers annexed to those employments.

(32) In the form of government, drawn up by Gustavus Adolphus, and confirmed by the states of the kingdom in 1634; the five great officers of the kingdom, were, during the king's absence, or in case of sickness, to be guardians to the king or queen during their minority. *Vid.* *Christ. Nettleblad Formula Regiminis Suecix de anno 1634. cum novissimis de anno 1719, & 1720. Collecta, § liii. p. 51, 52.*

respect of the states by their personal qualities.

S E C T. XIV.

Introduc-
tion of un-
limited mo-
narchy.

But under Charles XI. the Swedish government underwent a violent alteration. The power which the council of state had hitherto exercised, as a pretended intermediate order between the king and the states of the kingdom, was derogatory, and consequently an eye-fore to both. This it was which prompted the king to put this question to the states “ whether he was to govern
“ the kingdom with the advice of the council
“ of state? and in what manner the council
“ of state was an intermediate order between
“ the king and the states?” This, on the 9th December 1680, produced a resolution of the diet, “ that the determination of all
“ matters which the king, for the welfare
“ of the kingdom, had communicated to the
“ council of state, depended entirely on his
“ own just and good pleasure; and that a
“ king, on being of age, and governing
“ according to law, was accountable for
“ his proceedings to God alone; that the
“ council of state was not to be account-
“ ed a middle order, nor so much as a
“ fifth state, but to be one and the same
“ with that of the nobles.” In the same

resolution it was likewise specified, “ that
 “ the king was limited only by the law of
 “ Sweden, and not by any form of govern-
 “ ment.”. This resolution received the
 royal assent on the 10th of December 1680. The usual stile of the king and kingdom’s council, was at the same time changed into that of Royal Council (z). Thus was the king emancipated from the controul of the council of state; and this was the first step to a more free exercise of power, which, in the diet held in 1682, received some additions: for in its resolution of the 3d of January 1683, the succession to the throne was declared hereditary in the male and female line; and the king invested with a right of bestowing fiefs and crown-lands, and of reassuming them. The states afterwards acknowledged his claim to the government of the kingdom; to make laws and ordinances; to regulate the militia, and recruit the military forces; yet, in the manner prescribed by law. In the same resolution the states, however, settled the time and rates of the taxes (a); which clearly shews that they had reserved

(z) Anecdotes de Suede, p. 137, 138. Wilde, c. iii. § iv. § 42. p. 712—717.

(a) Du Mont Corps Diplom. Tom. VII. P. II. p. 40. et suiv.

the important article of taxes to themselves (33).

S E C T. XV.

The new
and present
form of go-
vernment.

This change of situation, however, was attended with such ill consequences under Charles XI. and Charles XII. that on the death of the latter, the Swedes laid hold of the first opportunity of delivering themselves from the burden (34), and introducing a form of government quite new; by which the prerogative was reduced within much narrower limits than even before the time of Charles XI. Accordingly, in 1719, they entered into a compact with queen Ulrica

(33) As this revolution makes not the least mention of an unlimited power being given to the king, Wilde will not allow that Charles XI. had the absolute sovereignty. Hist. Pragm. cap. iii. § iv. § 40. p. 678. In proof of this, he produces several diets subsequent to this alteration of the government, being held in the years 1686, 1689, 1693; in which the king, of his own accord, gives the states an account of the situation of the kingdom. Nay, he says expressly, that since 1680, tho' the king has obtained more power, yet he has not more privileges and authority in reality, but only in appearance. Whereas it is rather certain, that the form of government was in reality altered, and only the appearance of it retained; and that the king, even antecedently to the abovementioned resolutions, did in many points consider himself as unlimited; and that the states of the kingdom, so far from opposing him, have, on several occasions, addressed him as an unlimited monarch; particularly at the diet of 1693, the states of Sweden formally acknowledged him for an "absolute and sovereign king."

(34) It is observable, that the Swedish army were the first movers for suppressing the absolute sovereignty, as appears from a letter of field-marshal Siverhielm, in the Suenfka Biblioth. Del. I. n. 6.

Eleo-

Eleonora, and in 1720, with her consort Frederic I. (35), whereby they established a perpetual form of government.

This last compact or Form of Govern-<sup>Fundamen-
tal laws.</sup>ment, together with the Act of the Diet made in 1723, and the Declaration published by king Adolphus Frederic 1751 (36), are the principal fundamentals of the government of Sweden, which have since been more clearly determined in several acts of the diet, and judicial sentences (37).

S E C T. XVI.

In this new constitution, the states of the kingdom have secured to themselves the su-<sup>States of
the king-
dom and
diet.</sup>preme power, and the principal regalities; which they exercise at the diets. The states consist of the nobility, the clergy, the burghers, and the peasants. Every third year, about the middle of January, a diet is held at Stockholm, or occasionally at some other place; and the king, with the advice of the council of state; or if he be absent or

(35) The former is to be found in the *Europ. Fama*, p. 230. The other in professor Dahnert's German Translation of the Fundamental Laws of Sweden, p. 4—53. Among several alterations made in the last, the king's power is considerably more abridged. And the Act of Security in p. 105—128.

(36) The act of the diet is to be found in the Swedish fundamental laws beforementioned, p. 61---102, and the Declaration in p. 105---128.

(37) The last are to be found in professor Dahnert's *Acta Publica*.

sick,

sick, the council of state issues the summons. This meeting is composed of the deputies of the states, that is, I. Of the counts, barons, and gentry, one of each family, being at least, twenty-four years of age. II. Of the clergy, the bishops, and superintendents; or, in lieu of them, a person unanimously chosen by the chapter; together with a deputy from the clergy of a deanery, who must be one of their body. III. Of the towns, one or more from each (38), who must be one of the corporation, or at least a burgher. And IV. Of the peasants, one from every district (Harad, whose charges they bear (39)). The clergy of several deaneries may agree in choosing one common representative, which is likewise permitted to two or three of the smallest towns, and different Harads.

(38) The towns in Sweden are either Staple, or Land-towns, and those larger or smaller; the staple and larger land-towns send each two deputies, the smaller only one. Stockholm has the privilege of sending ten, and Gottenburg three.

(39) The nobility at the diet amount to one thousand, and the clergy to fifty persons. At the diet held in 1755, and 1756, were present a hundred and thirteen deputies from the towns, and a hundred and thirty-five from the peasants. By the form of government of 1634, the colonel, lieutenant-colonel, major, and a captain of each regiment, is entitled to a seat at the diet; and Loccenius places them amongst the states of the kingdom, whom in that account, he divides into five classes: but it is a mistake to make the said military officers a particular class; no mention is made of them in the summons of the diet in 1723, where the several states are punctually specified. Likewise in the form of government in 1719 and 1720, these officers are totally omitted.

Such

Such a representative, however, has only one vote. A dioceſe, deanery, or town, failing to ſend a representative, incurs a penalty at the pleaſure of its reſpective ſtate (*b*).

The representatives of the three laſt ſtates muſt be furniſhed with credentials made out in a certain form, and produce them at the opening of the diet. Upon this the nobility make choice of the land maſhal, and each of the other three ſtates chuſe a ſpeaker, (Taleman). The diet is opened in the king's palace; and by the king with all the enſigns of royalty, and the ſtates in their robes. After a ſpeech delivered, either by the king himſelf, or the chancellor, he cauſes ſuch overtures, the nature of which does not require ſecrecy, to be read to the ſtates. But theſe ceremonies excepted, they themſelves tranſact every thing neceſſary to the welfare of the kingdom. They examine how the fundamental laws have been obſerved, and into the conduct of the counſellors of ſtate; likewise into the management of the publick monies, and the condition of the army and navy. For the diſpatch of theſe, and other affairs, they appoint committees, the principal of which is the ſecret committee, taking cognizance only of the moſt important concerns, as al-

(*b*) Orders of the diet in 1723, § 1—7.

liances,

liances, peace, war, the navy, army, and the finances (40). The acts of the states, after being laid before the king for his signing, are proclaimed, and carried into execution in his name.

A diet is not to sit above three months (41), but may rise sooner, all the states or three of them so desiring; and a petition being presented to the king for its dissolution, he puts an end to it by proclamation. Upon the day appointed, the dissolution of the diet (42) being previously signed by the council and the states of the kingdom, and confirmed with the seals of the chamber of nobles, the chapter of the cathedral, the city of Stockholm, and the Upland court, is read and receives the royal assent (*d*).

Privileges
and obligations
of the
states.

The supreme power being lodged in the states assembled at a diet, they alone have the conduct of government, and explain and amend the particulars of the constitution (*e*); without their consent no law can

(40) The secret committee is usually composed of deputies of the three upper orders, none of the peasantry being admitted.

(41) By reason of the great expences, which, if the diet continues a twelve-month, amount to eighteen hundred thousand dollars, but this law has been little observed in the late diets.

(42) No resolution of the diets can take place without the consent of at least three of the states.

(*d*) Act of the diet, § 20, 24.

(*e*) Form of preamble.

be made, altered or repealed (*f*); no war undertaken unless for the immediate defence of the kingdom against an invasion (*g*); no taxes, duties, and tolls imposed (*h*); no raising the value nor altering the standard of the coin (*i*), and no privileges granted to any class of the states collectively (*k*); farther, all military officers take the same oath to them as to the king (*l*), and they have likewise reserved to themselves the nomination of the guardians and preceptors of the king's children (*m*).

The obligations which they had laid on themselves are, that they shall religiously adhere to the form of government; shall not, under very severe penalties, propose or go about any thing tending to overthrow or alter it; and lastly, they leave the king in the full and free exercise of his authority, and the enjoyment of his dignity, as prescribed by the laws of Sweden and the form of government (*n*).

(*f*) Form of G. § iv.

(*g*) Ibid. § vi. Act of S. § 17.

(*h*) Ibid. § v.

(*i*) Ibid. § ix. Act of S. § 18.

(*k*) Ibid. § xlix. Act of S. § xi.

(*l*) Ibid. § xxiv.

(*m*) Ibid. § iii.

(*n*) Ibid § viii.

S E C T. XVII.

Council of
state.

On the new form of government taking place, in lieu of the unlimited prerogative, the council of state was restored to its former privileges, though, without the five high officers. Its number is now fixed to sixteen, and on a vacancy in the council, the three upper states recommend three persons to the king, who makes choice of one. No more than two of a family can be counsellors of state at the same time. They are next in dignity to the king himself (43), and esteemed the guardians of the laws and conservators of the rights and privileges of the states. The council of state is accordingly invested with great powers, so as even to guide the helm of government jointly with the king, or during his absence or illness, or on his demise (*o*). This assembly proceeds by majority of votes (*p*), and the king is so far obliged to assent to its resolutions, that, on his making any difficulty, the council of state can stamp the king's name, and cause the resolutions to be made pub-

(43) The real constitution of Sweden, p. 464. says, that in the opinion of Charles XI. the counsellors of state, or as they were then called, the king's counsellors, were equal in rank to the princes, dukes, and peers of France.

(*o*) Form of G. § xii. xiv. xvi.

(*p*) Ibid. § 15.

lic (44). The council of state, during a recess of the states, makes treaties of peace, truces, and alliances (45) in conjunction with the king (*q*): on a vacancy in the great employments, from colonel to field-marshal inclusively, and others both civil and ecclesiastical, it proposes three persons for the king to chuse one (*r*); and even, when lower in the cabinet employments as they are called, two counsellors of state are always laid before the king for his nomination (*s*).

The counsellors of state are deputies of the states (*t*), and as such accountable to them for their conduct (*u*). They are to represent to the king, on any extraordinary affair, what the ordinances and interest of the realm require; to take care that the fundamental laws of the kingdom, and the form of government be duly observed; and strongly to oppose intrigues and practices

(44) When the counsellors of state are unanimous, or only a majority, they can carry every thing through, even against the king's inclinations; of this the Swedish anecdotes afford many instances.

(45) Of these transactions they must make a report at the next diet, and whilst it continues sitting, they are not to take in hand any such important affairs, without the knowledge and consent of the states. Form of G. §. vii.

(*q*) Form of G. § vii.

(*r*) Ibid. § ix.

(*s*) Ibid. § xx.

(*t*) Act of S. § 15.

(*u*) Form of G. § xiv.

tending to the diminution of liberty, and the re-establishment of an unlimited sovereignty (x).

S E C T. XVIII.

Rights of
the crown.

It is easily conceived from the authority which the states of the kingdom have reserved to themselves, and the powers with which they have invested the counsellors of state, that very little remains to the king: his unalterable prerogatives, declared by the states of the kingdom (y), are as enumerated by a Swedish politician.

I. The title and state of a king.

II. The government of the kingdom according to the laws, with the right of inheritance to his male heirs.

III. The right of conferring nobility on persons of worth (46).

IV. Of creating knights of the several orders.

V. Nomination of and authority over his household.

(x) Form of G. § xiv.

(y) See § xvi. towards the end.

(46) The states, however, in the Form of G. of 1720, required of king Frederic I. that Sweden having already too great a number of nobility, no more noblemen might be made, till his kingdom could allow of it.

VI. The right of choosing one out of three persons proposed for certain employments (47).

VII. In certain cases, to nominate a person not proposed (48).

VIII. To transact several affairs in the cabinet, i. e. jointly with two counsellors of state, particularly the nomination to certain employments out of three persons proposed to him.

IX. The decisive vote in the council of state on an equality of voters ; or if there be a minority of two on the side for which the king declares.

And lastly, X. All orders and edicts are signed and carried into execution in his name (49).

The king's principal obligations are,

(47) The reason of this was, that an unlimited disposal of employments might hereafter be made use of as a means for introducing absolute sovereignty.

(48) But this nomination being objected to by the council of state, becomes void, of which several instances occur in the Swedish Anecdotes.

(49) All these privileges are allowed the king by the author of the "Real Constitution of the Kingdom;" but what he gives the king with one hand, he takes away with the other, making a difference between the fixed and mutable prerogatives ; among the former, he only reckons his being reigning king over the Swedish monarchy. This right, says he, the king can forfeit, only by going about to make himself absolute, by open force or secret practices ; all the other rights of the crown are mutable : and he asserts, that the states of the kingdom may, occasionally, curtail, and even set them aside.

His obligations.

I. To profess, support, and defend the Lutheran religion (*z*).

II. Not to dismember the kingdom nor alienate any thing belonging to it (*a*).

III. To govern with and not without, much less against, the advice of the council of state (*50*).

IV. To detest and reject absolute royalty or sovereignty (*b*).

And V. to execute the resolutions, acts, and ordinances of the diet.

S E C T. XIX.

Abhorrence of the absolute sovereignty.

Arbitrary power, or absolute sovereignty, is extremely abhorred in Sweden; this abhorrence shews itself in the very laws of the kingdom; every person, on obtaining any employment whatever, must abjure it upon oath (*d*). The members of the diet have tied their own hands with regard to it (*e*), by a perpetual law that they shall not join in any design or conspiracy for altering the established form of government (*51*). The

(*z*) Form of G. § i.

(*a*) King's Ass. § i.

(*50*) And he obliges himself to side with the majority of voices. Form of G. § xiii. xv.

(*b*) King's Ass. § vi.

(*c*) Order of the diet. § xx.

(*d*) Act of the diet of 1719. p. 11.

(*e*) Id. Ibid.

(*51*) In an ordinance of the diet of 1723, § ix. contains a general form for the members of the diets, which lays them under this obligation.

king himself, in the most solemn manner, is bound by the law of forfeiture, never to aim at, or accept of absolute sovereignty (*f*); and several private persons have, by their pens, displayed a truly patriotic zeal for supporting the liberty, which has been so happily recovered, and hitherto so resolutely preserved (52).

(*f*) Act of S. § vi. xxiii.

(52) A singular testimony of this is, the piece, intitled "Glorious Sweden," and translated into German by the title of, "Genuine Constitution of the Kingdom of Sweden;" which is throughout a panegyric on the present form of government, and a justification of all the measures taken in support of it, though not without some cavil and sophistry. This pamphlet occasioned a great stir in the diet held in 1755; some declared the author deserved a public reward; others were for having him exemplarily punished. He expresses an ardent wish, that a law catechism was composed for the use of the common people; and this wish has, in some measure, been fulfilled by a Swedish ecclesiastic, who, in order to give his countrymen some acquaintance with the laws of their country, has introduced the first principles of the Swedish polity into his Illustration of Luther's Catechism; which, on account of its singularity, being, perhaps, the only catechism of its kind, I shall communicate to the reader. The questions and answers appertaining to this subject are as follow.

"Who can make laws in our kingdom?"

"The states of the kingdom; and the king signs them with his own hand, and causes them to be confirmed by his royal seal."

"Who can administer justice?"

"The king, jointly with the advice of the council of state, can administer justice according to law; and he likewise does it by other officers of his own, who are also those of the kingdom; and on this account particularly the king is our ruler."

"Have the subjects then given away the power of government?"

S E C T. XX.

Judgment
on the Swe-
dish form of
government.

The only view of the states of Sweden in the regulation of the constitution was, as they themselves declare, “ That the king might continue unmolested in his dignity ; the council of state be maintained in its authority, and the states in their rights and immunities.” Liberty is the soul and essence of the Swedish form of government, which is mixed and composed of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy, with the least of the first, and the most of the second, so that Sweden is rather to be looked on as an aristocratical free state than a monarchy (*b*). For, though all the four states are on a level at the diet, yet several cases occur which throw a great preponderancy into the scale of the nobility.

“ Yes. It is given away, and lodged in the hands of the law and the government. But withal, their representatives at the diet are bound by the laws, and have a right and power to see that the government acts according to the laws, and to amend whatever has been done contrariwise.”

“ What relief then remains for a subject under any grievances ?

“ He has his natural and Christian liberty of defending his life and substance ; and is never to give away his own or the kingdom’s liberty.”

“ Wherein consists this liberty of the kingdom, and of each man ?

“ In being governed according to the constitution and laws of the kingdom ; but never to suffer himself to be governed by the will and pleasure of an individual.”

(*b*) Science du Gouvern. de M. de Real, Tom. IV. p. 133.

This

This admits not the least doubt, on considering, 1. That the council of state, who sit at the helm of government, are of the body of the nobility. 2. That the nobility are possessed of the principal employments, both civil and military; and 3. That, they are therefore the most considerable and the richest of the four states, not to mention their superiority in number. All these advantages give them a great influence on the three other states, to the particular members of which, the nobility, from their authority and dignities, can be of great service or detriment; and thus, according to the common course of things, they can work on them through hope or fear; and consequently, accomplish whatever they please. This form of government, some hold as very inconvenient (*i*); and so perhaps it would be in another kingdom; yet, every thing thoroughly weighed, it appears well adapted to the domestic and original state of the country, and the genius of the people: the public liberty, its main scope, is, amidst all the privileges of the nobility, sufficiently secured to the other states by excellent laws (53).

(*i*) Justi's Nature and Constitution of States, § xcvi. and de Real, Tom. ii. p. 694.

(53) The author of "Glorious Sweden," may easily be excused for preferring the Swedish form of government to every

S E C T. XXI.

Some politicians, however, from this great prevalence of aristocracy, foresee the overthrow of this so highly valued constitution. The author of the Chinese Letters, proclaims it in a very decisive tone. "Sweden, says he, however rigid and earnest it at present seems, in maintaining its liberty, is very probably only hastening to an arbitrary government; the diets, while they pretend great care for the liberty of the people, are only laying the foundation of their own independency. The deluded people will, at length, fall into the snare of an aristocratical sovereignty, and then will be thoroughly sensible that the government of many is always more burthensome than that of an individual; and in that most dangerous situation, when one branch of the legislature is able to seize the whole, they will have recourse to the throne, which will never turn the deaf ear to their complaints. No people are known long to bear with an aristocratical sovereignty, when any other refuge is at hand: however, the commonality may, for a time, be enslaved

every other in the universe as the most perfect; for this may be very justly said, with regard to Sweden, though, in general, or relatively to other states, it might be found doubtful, or even untrue.

by

by a number of tyrants, yet, on the first opportunity, they never fail having recourse to despotism or democracy (*k*).” But this in all appearance is little to be apprehended, the constitution being founded on such a regular base, and the crown so limited, that, without any extraordinary incidents it will scarce ever acquire a party sufficient to bring about any such alteration (*l*). And still less is it to be apprehended that the democratical part of the state, the aristocratical being so strong, will ever undertake, or, at least, accomplish any thing for its own particular aggrandizement, or for erecting a monarchy.

S E C T. XXII.

A celebrated writer thinks that the Swedish government is formed on that of Great Britain, as far as compatible with the situation of the country, the manners of the inhabitants, and the fundamental laws of the kingdom (*m*). But a short comparison will shew that if there be some affinity, there is a greater difference.

The English and Swedish constitutions compared.

In Great Britain, the parliament has a share in making, altering, and repealing laws.

(*k*) Chinese Letters N^o. LV.

(*l*) Present State of Europe, ch. iv.

(*m*) De Real, Part I. Tom. II.

In Sweden the states are likewise the legislators.

In Great Britain, the parliament imposes taxes and imposts.

In Sweden the states have likewise such a right.

In Great Britain the parliament can call the king's ministers to account for misconduct.

In Sweden, the states can do the like, both with regard to the counsellors of state, and other officers civil and military.

In Great Britain the king exercises independently all the foreign privileges of royalty ; making war and peace, alliances, and treaties with other powers.

In Sweden the king cannot enter into a war without the consent of the states, nor make peace, truces, alliances, &c, but with the advice of the council of state, i. e. according to the majority of votes.

In Great Britain he has the disposal of all great employments, ecclesiastical, civil, and military.

In Sweden, his household excepted, he cannot of himself, give any employments, either great or small.

In Great Britain he can, at his pleasure, call, prorogue, and dissolve the parliament.

In Sweden, the king must call a diet at the time appointed, and the states continue sitting,

sitting, or put an end to their session, as they think fit.

In Great Britain he can refuse his consent to the resolutions of parliament, and then they are of no force.

In Sweden he is obliged to assent to the acts of the diet, and to put them in execution.

In Great Britain he is not obliged to defer to the majority of his privy council, but can follow his own opinion.

In Sweden he must conform to the majority of votes in the council of state.

In Great Britain he can bring up his children as he pleases, and commit their education to whom he will.

In Sweden, the states of the kingdom nominate the persons, who are to be entrusted with the education of the king's children.

S E C T. XXIII.

There is, however, a resemblance between the two states; and the ground of it lies in their form of government. The spirit of discord has shed its baneful influence in both. Sweden, no less than England, is distracted with parties, by which the former in particular, has been hinder'd from reaping, upon its change of government, all those
 Parties in Sweden.
 advan-

advantages, which otherwise it might. These parties have been seen to operate, not only in its domestic concerns, but in foreign negotiations, in wars, and alliances; and, amidst their collisions, the Swedish political system is ever fluctuating (*n*). To the violence of the prevailing party are, in a great measure, to be imputed the two last wars with Russia (54) and Prussia, by which the kingdom was in no small danger, and involved in vast expences and damages, without any indemnification (55).

S E C T. XXIV.

The succession.

The succession to the throne of Sweden, was never perfectly hereditary. For though the sons succeeded their fathers, and the very daughters were not excluded; yet, at the same time, the people were possessed of a right of election; so that if a younger bro-

(*n*) Science du Gouvernement. De Real. P. I. Tom. II. p. 694—706.

(54) The foundation for the war with Russia was laid in the diet of 1739, after renewing the subsidy treaty with France. Two parties were then on foot, the Hats, and the Night-caps; the former were for a war, and the latter for a peace. A third, distinguished by the name of Travelling-caps, stepped forth as neutrals, without taking part in any of their schemes. But the hats being the strongest, the war was resolved on. Present State of Europe, ch. iv. p. 53.

(55) In the Russian war, Sweden lost part of Finland; and the charges of the Prussian war, according to public accounts, amounted to above sixty-two millions of dollars, silver-money.

ther

ther or kinsman was evidently fitter for government than the elder, he was preferred; and thus an election superseded primogeniture (o). This custom was constantly observed, and expressly established at the union of Calmar. But Gustavus Vasa, being elected king, the states, at the diets of Oerebro, in 1539, and at Westeras in 1544, did, in consideration of his eminent deserts, make the crown hereditary to his male descendants. King John III. in 1590, prevailed with the states of the kingdom to extend the hereditary right to the king's daughters, "if unmarried, or afterwards "married with consent of the states;" which was confirmed in 1604, by the union of Norkoping in behalf of the female descendants of Charles IX. under the same conditions; and by the diet of 1627, for Christina, daughter to Gustavus Adolphus. But in the act of the diet in 1650, for declaring the elector Palatine Charles Gustavus king, mention was made only of the male descendants; and not a word concerning the female, neither in other acts relating to the succession. However, in the act of the diet of 1683, the female succession was acknowledged as valid, agreeably to the

(o) Dalin, P. I. c. vii, § xxii. xxiii.

Norkoping union, and the act of the diet of 1627. At the same time, this diet invested king Charles XI. with the power of settling the succession, which he accordingly did by his will in 1693, and, in the want of sons, nominated his daughters and their descendants, founding such nomination on the act of the diet above mentioned in 1683. On the demise of Charles XII. the states of Sweden declared the throne vacant, and paid no regard to the daughters of Charles XI. and their heirs, the proviso of the Norkoping union not being fulfilled with regard to them (56); yet they chose the younger daughter Ulrica Eleonora, settling the succession on her male issue. And pursuant to this hereditary right in the male line his present majesty Adolphus Frederic was, in 1743, declared successor to the throne (*p*).

S E C T. XXV.

Regency
and guardian-
ship.

In the form of government of 1634, the five great officers of state are appointed regents and guardians, during the king's illness or minority (*q*); and accordingly the

(56) This was expressly specified in the resolution of the states in 1719.

(*p*) Genuine Constitution of the Kingdom of Sweden, p. 408—426.

(*q*) Nettleblatt Form. Reg. 3. § liii. p. 51.

govern-

government was lodged with them during the minority of queen Christina. With them, Charles Gustavus, by his will, his son Charles XI. being a minor, joined his consort Hedwig Eleonora, with a double vote (*r*); and this same princess was, by Charles XI. nominated guardian of his minor son Charles XII. in conjunction with five members of the king's council (*s*). But in the form of government of 1720, the regency is, in such cases, committed to the whole body of the council of state (*t*).

The time of the king's majority was not ^{Majority.} precisely determined, or at least not punctually observed. Gustavus Adolphus, at the desire of the states, entered on the government when he was seventeen years of age (*u*), queen Christina in her eighteenth (*x*), and Charles XII. in his sixteenth year, though his father had settled his majority at his entrance into his eighteenth year (*y*).

S E C T. XXVI.

Altho' the crown, on the king's demise, ^{Accession and coronation.} immediately devolves upon the next heir,

(*r*) Les Anecdotes de Suede, p. 74.

(*s*) Puffendorf's Introduction to the History of Sweden.

(*t*) Form of G. of 1720, § 16.

(*u*) Histoire de Gustave Adolphe, par M. de M***, Livr.

I. p. 26, 27.

(*x*) Loccenius, Hist. Suec. Lib. IX. p. m. 730:

(*y*) Voltaire's Hist. de Charles XII. Livr. 1.

yet is he not to enter on the government till he has delivered his declaration, been crowned (57), and taken his oath (z). The kings, after their inauguration, formerly were obliged to make a progress through the kingdom (a), which was called Riks-Gata. Though this custom be not formally abolished, yet appearing no longer necessary, it seems left to the king's good pleasure (b).

S E C T. XXVII.

Title.

The first rulers in Sweden were stiled Drottars or judges (c). Dygue, and his successors, had themselves stiled kings of Upsal, till Olof Scotkonung first assumed the title of king of Sweden (d), to which Magnus Ladulas afterwards added that of "king of the Goths (e) ;" and Eric of Pomerania lengthened it with another addition of "king of the Venedi (58)." In

(57) It is not unworthy notice, that at the coronation of a queen, she is proclaimed as king, and not as queen; and this was done at the coronation of queen Ulrica Eleonora. Mem. concern. Christine Reine de Suede, Tom. III. p. 32, 302.

(z) Form of G. § iii.

(a) Dalin. Del. I. cap. vii. p. 225.

(b) Act of the diet of 1752. § 7.

(c) Dalin. Del. I. cap. xv. p. 322.

(d) Ibid. cap. xx. p. 622.

(e) Ibid. Dell. II. cap. viii. p. 268.

(58) A record is still in being, in which Magnus Ladulas likewise stiles himself king of the Venedi; but this title was

process of time, the titles of any conquered countries made a part of it; but on the loss of them, were again laid aside. The present usual title is, king of the Swedes, Goths, and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Stettin, Pomerania, &c. (59), to which is now added, heir of Norway, and duke of Holstein (*f*), the present king being a prince of the house of Holstein.

S E C T. XXVIII.

The arms of the king of Sweden are quar-^{Arms.}terly; the upper dexter, and lower sinister, Jupiter; three crowns, Sol (60), for the kingdom of Sweden; and party per bend wavey, Jupiter; with a crowned lion, Mars, in a field, Sol; for the kingdom of the Goths (*g*). The arms of the present king have likewise a central shield, and a heart shield; in the first of which are the

not constantly used till the reign of Eric of Pomerania. Dalin. Dell. II. cap. xi. p. 59.

(59) At least so I find it by the translations of treaties.

(*f*) See ch. vii. § xx. (37) and § xxv.

(60) Some derive the crowns from the three principal idols in the most remote times of paganism, and from the supposed sacredness of a number divisible, into three exact parts. Dalin. Del. I. cap. v. and cap. xv. Concerning the mysterious signification attributed to these three crowns by some Swedish writers, see Beckman Synt. Dignit. Illustr. Dissert. VII. c. iii. § xiii. and the contests with Denmark about bearing them, are mentioned ch. vii. of this work, § xxvi. (42).

(*g*) Gaterer's New Manual.

arms of Sleswick and Holstein; and in the latter those of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst. The shield is surmounted with a crown; two lions, Sol, the supporters.

S E C T. XXIX.

Titles, rights, and obligations of the king's children.

The king's sons are called hereditary princes, and the eldest distinguished by the title of Crown-Prince; whereas the daughters, instead of hereditary princesses, are called princesses royal, not being heiresses to the crown. Neither the princes nor princesses have any lands, and must not so much as purchase any, but content themselves with the pecuniary appointments assigned to them. But the princesses, on their marriage, have the usual portion, and the princes are obliged to enter into the national service (*i*).

S E C T. XXX.

The king's residence.

The kings of Sweden formerly resided at Upsal, but have since removed to Stockholm (61) as more convenient, and being

(*i*) Declaration of 1751. § 4.

(61) Birger Jarl, father to king Waldemar, and regent of the kingdom, founded this city about the year 1254, as a check against the invasions of the eastern nations, who sometimes made their way into the very heart of Sweden. Its name is compounded of Stock, or Stick, and Holm, an island; as standing on several islands; and said to be derived from the pieces of timber, Stockar, laid across the waters,

the

the capital of the kingdom. The king's palace is a new and splendid edifice; and in the neighbourhood of Stockholm he has several seats, as Friderichshoff, Carlberg, Ulrichsdal, and Drottingholm. The last is the finest and most answerable to the dignity of the owner.

S E C T. XXXI.

The king's household is under the super-^{Court.}intendency of the grand marshal, who is always a counsellor of state. His office is to take care of the king's courts, palaces, and houses, and to regulate every thing relating to the table, the officers and domestics, and other particulars &c. (k).

S E C T. XXXII.

Sweden has three orders, the Seraphim, ^{Orders of knight-}the Sword, and the North-star. The first ^{hood.}is said to be of great antiquity (62), and

partly for passing over, and keeping out an enemy's ships; or from the palisadoes of an old fort which stood there; an odd story is told concerning the origin of this name in the *Memoir pour servir à l'Hist du XVII^eme Siecle*, Tom. II. p. 29, 30.

(k) Form of Govern. § 35.

(62) King Magnus Ladulas is said to have created knights of the order of the Seraph so early as 1282. *Dalin. Del. II. c. viii. § 19. S. 290* The same historian likewise says, that king Magnus Smeck, and king John II. at their respective coronations, made several knights of this order. *Dell. II. c. xi. § xviii. S. 447. and cap. xix. § xx. S. 836.*

the second but little posterior (63). Both, however, in time, became obsolete; and it appears that king Eric XIV. at his coronation, instituted a new order, very nearly resembling that of the Seraphim; King John III. the Agnus Dei (*m*), and Charles XI. that of Jehovah (*n*): yet their august titles have not preserved them from the fate of the two former; and that of the Amaranthus, instituted by queen Christina (*o*), likewise became extinguished soon after her resignation. Thus the Swedish court was without an ornament, which is established in all other European courts, till in 1748, king Frederic I. renewed the Seraphim and the Sword.

The ensign of the former is a white enamelled cross, with pyramidical points, the Swedish arms on a blue orl in the centre, and the letters IHS. i. e. "Iesus Hominum Salvator." Round the orl are four seraphim's heads, and four patriarchial crosses. It is surmounted with a crown, and hangs at a watered blue ribbon, from the right shoulder to the left side. The princes of the

(63) Dalin will have it that so early as 1260, knights of the Sword had been created by king Waldemar. Del. II. c. vii. § xxii. S. 238.

(*m*) Dalin. Del. III. c. xii. § iii. S. 7.

(*n*) Ibid. cap. xx. § 16. S. 563.

(*o*) Mem. concern. la Reine Christine, Tom. I. p. 384.

blood are, by birth, knights of this order : and the number of the knights, who are natives, is fixed to twenty-four.

The order of the Sword, which is limited to military officers, from a captain inclusively up to a field-marshal, and even inferior officers of distinguished merit, has twenty-four commanderies, but without limitation of the companions, who are little short of six hundred. The ensign of the order is a saltier cross, pearl, engrailed, in the centre of which, in an orb, are the three Swedish crowns, with a sword erect ; and round the orb are four crowns, topaz. The knights wear it at a yellow ribbon, on the breast ; but the commanders at a broad yellow ribbon, edged with blue, hanging from the right shoulder to the left side.

Besides these two, Frederic I. in the year 1748, instituted the order of North-Star, which is conferred on persons of merit without regard to station. Its ensign is, a cross, luna, which terminates pyramidically, and the north-star with five points ; the motto : " Nescit occasum," It never sets. This ensign is worn by the commanders at a black ribbon hanging round the neck, but by the other knights at a button hole or the breast.

The knights of the order of the Seraphim are, as such, commanders of the two others (*p*).

S E C T. XXXIII.

State of religion in Sweden.

The upper clergy in Sweden, whose chief in the early times of Christianity, was the archbishop of Hamburg and Bremen, afterwards the archbishop of Lund, and lastly the archbishop of Upsal, were formerly very powerful, bishops being invested with both the spiritual and temporal power in their dioceses. They were the first state of the kingdom, and, by office, members of the privy-council. During the aristocratical government, which prevailed formerly, they might be said to sit at the helm, and were the principal actors in all the great revolutions of the kingdom. On this account king Gustavus Vasa, when the reformation was established in Sweden, determined to humble them. At the diet of Westeras, in 1527, he granted the precedence before them, to the temporal members of the diet, and procured an act for investing him with their castles and superfluous revenues (*q*). Soon after, the papacy being totally abolished, and the Lutheran religion

(*p*) Genealogical and Historical Accounts.

(*q*) Dalin. Del. III. B. I. cap. iii. S. 126. 171.

formally settled by law, the superiority of the clergy likewise ceased with their power and opulence. They now were only the second class at the diet, the nobility being the first. The titles, however, were retained, and the archbishop of Upsal continued the head of the Swedish clergy. Next to him, are the ten bishops of Linköping, Skara, Strengnas, Westeras, Wexio, Abo, Lund, Borgo, Gothenburg, and Calmar; and three superintendents of Carlstadt, Hernoesand, and Gothland, all the difference between whom and the bishops lies in their rank. Then follow the provosts or deans, to the number of a hundred and ninety-two; and lastly, the priests and curates.

The archbishop is chosen by all the consistories of the kingdom, i. e. by the clergy of all the dioceses: but, on the vacancy of a see, three persons, who have the most votes in the diocese, are presented to the king, who, in conjunction with the national council, names one (*r*).

The Swedes have always shewn themselves very zealous for Lutheranism, and laid the king under an express obligation to maintain its purity unalterably against all

(*r*) Form of G. § xl. King's Declaration, § xix.

here-

heretics, and open violence ; and, if requisite, to hazard his life in defence of it (*s*).

S E C T. XXXIV.

Universities. Upon the general restoration of the sciences in Europe, which began in the XVth century, the disposition for literature manifested itself in Sweden likewise. The youth went to study at Paris, Prague, and other universities ; and in the year 1477, Sten Sture, at the representation of the archbishop of Upsal, founded an university in that city (*t*), the first in the three northern kingdoms. But the commotions of the succeeding times occasioned its total extinction. Gustavus Vasa restored it (64), and besides procuring men of abilities for professors, provided for its decent support ; so that he may be looked on as its second founder (*u*). His successors imitating so laudable an example, the university has been continually improving, and time has brought it to that prosperity and reputation which it now so deservedly enjoys (65).

(*s*) Form of G. § i. King's Ass. § i.

(*t*) Dalin. Del. II. c. xviii.

(64) Learning was then so scarce, that the king's secretary's office afforded not one single person who understood Latin, nor had the treasury one who could cast accounts. Dalin. Del. III. c. vi.

(*u*) Ibid. Ibid. p. 339.

(65) This university has a very large library, consisting of

Sweden has two other universities, Abo in Finland, and Lund in Schonen. The former was founded in 1640, and the latter in 1666, under Charles XI (x). The university of Greifswald, erected in 1456, by Wratislaus IX. duke of Pomerania, is likewise within the dominions of Sweden. Each of the Swedish universities, like those in England, have their chancellor, chosen by themselves, who is a nobleman of the highest distinction, or one of the royal family.

S E C T. XXXV.

Sweden has not neglected forming literary societies for the promotion of the sciences and philology (66). So long ago as the year 1668, it had a society of anti-

Literary
societies.

above 100,000 books, with no small number of manuscripts. Gustavus Adolphus made a present to it of all the books which were among the spoils during his wars in Livonia, Poland, and Germany: and from queen Christina it received the several collections of books found in Olmutz and Prague. But the greatest curiosity of the Upsal library is the Evangelium Ulphilæ, commonly called Codex Argenteus, from its silver and gold letters, and not from its silver binding. For the singular destiny of this book, see Mem. concern. la Reine Christine, Tom. I. p. 307.

(x) S. Lucæ, Europ. Helicon. S. 257, 258.

(66) Queen Christina spared no costs in inviting persons of learning to settle in Sweden, as, If. Vossius, Huet, Bochart, Garisol, Des Cartes, Nic. Heinsius, Marc. Meibom. Ludolf, Merfennus, H. Grotius, Freinhem, Scheffer, and Loccenius. This learned company used to meet on set days in the queen's library, and converse on matters of science, which gave rise to a settled literary society; but which soon saw its period. Olavi Plantini Hellas sub Arcto. p. 41, 42.

quarians;

quarians ; and in 1688, another was instituted for the improvement of medicine, under the title of Collegium Medicum. In 1728, the Upsal Scientific Society was instituted ; and in 1741, the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm ; both now of great repute in the world for their learned productions. Queen Louisa Ulrica, in the year 1753, instituted the academy of the Belles Lettres, for the improvement of history, poetry, and oratory (z). This was succeeded by other foundations for the improvements of the practical parts of learning and the fine arts (67).

S E C T. XXXVI.

Flourishing
state of the
sciences in
Sweden.

By these and the like institutions, and the national application, good taste, and capacity, the sciences have attained to a very flourishing state in Sweden, and make a quite different appearance from what they did formerly. In the former century antiquities were the favourite studies of the Swedish literati (68) ; in the present, phi-

(z) New Genealogical and Historical Accounts, P. XLIX.

(67) Among these are the laboratorum for chemistry ; the academies for land-surveying and fortifications, with those of painting and sculpture.

(68) Verelius, Peringskiold, and Rudbeck, have distinguished themselves in this kind of literature by a multitude of writings ; Buderii Biblioth. Hist. Sell. c. xxxii. § 2. p. 1620—

losophy

lofophy has engaged their attention, particularly natural philofophy and natural history, politicks, oeconomics, mathematics, and likewise the more elegant fciences: their writings on thefe feveral fubjects have been received by the learned world with the greateft approbation, and many even tranflated into foreign languages.

S E C T. XXXVII.

King Ingiald had, fo early as the VIIIth Laws. century, directed Wiger Spa, or the Wife Judge of Upland, to make collections of the old Swedish laws and customs; and, from them, to draw up a code according to the adminiftration and rules of juftice in Upland (*a*): on which account, the code was called both Wiger Spas Flocker, (or collections) or the Upland Law; for, at that time every province of Sweden had its

1602.) and particularly the latter in his celebrated *Atlantica*, has published a complete fystem of Swedish antiquities, in which he makes Sweden the univerfal mother-country, not only of all European, but likewise of many Afatic and African nations: he derives from it alfo the origin of the pagan mythology and religion, languages, laws, fciences, &c. and by a laboured and forced conftruction, attributes to Sweden every thing famous in the moft remote ages. A work in which the author muft be allowed to fhew a lively imagination, a moft extraordinary ingenuity, and immense learning; but withal a love of his country, infatuated with the moft extravagant prejudices. *Buderi Biblioth. Hift. Sel.* 1602, 1603.

(*a*) Dalin, *Del. I. c. xiv. § xxiv. S. 431.*

own law, but that of Upland was reckoned preferable. King Eric surnamed the Pious, caused it to be purged from Paganism; and upon its being translated and amended by Birger Jarl, and by the kings Magnus Ladulas, and Birger, it was ratified by the latter in 1296 (*b*). But under king Magnus Smeck, a general code was composed for the whole kingdom, which was afterwards called Mittlegesetz (middle law) (*c*). This, however, was not received in the kingdom of the Goths, till 1416, under king Eric of Pomerania, nor confirmed till 1442, by king Christopher; and afterwards it commonly went by the name of king Christopher's Law-Book (*d*). King Charles IX. had it first printed in the year 1608, that the people might be better acquainted with it; and, in this form it was called the Swedish Landslag, or law of the country. The towns in Sweden had their particular law (Stadslag), which king Gustavus Adolphus printed in 1618 (*69*).

(*b*) Dalin, Del. II. cap. iv. § vi. S. 189. c. ix. § iii. S. 320.

(*c*) Ibid. c. xii. § ix. 13. S. 478, 484, 485.

(*d*) Ibid. c. xvi. § iii. S. 626. c. xvi. § v. S. 699.

(69) Both the country and town law have been translated into Latin by Joh. Loccenius; the former under the title of, *Sueciæ Regni Leges Provinciales*, prout quondam à Carolo IX. — Rege anno 1608, publicatæ sunt. Londini Scanorum, 1675, 8vo. The latter, *Sueciæ Regni Leges Civiles* aut Ci-

Under Charles XI. in 1667, was likewise published the Swedish maritime law (70): And, thus the Swedish laws remained, though both queen Christina and Charles XII. employed persons to revise and amend them (*e*). But on the death of the latter, the states of Sweden caused a new book of statutes to be drawn up, adapted to the new limited form of government; and in which the country and town-laws, which before had been distinct, were blended. After its being examined and assented to at the diets in 1731, and 1734, and likewise ratified by the king, it was printed in 1736 (71), and, at the same time, both the country and town-laws were abolished.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Sweden is divided into eighty-two jurisdictions (Harader or Haradshofdings-do-^{Courts of Justice.}

vitatum, secundum Gustavi Adolphi—Regis mandatum publicatæ et typis excusæ, A. 1618. Londini Scanorum, 1675, 8vo. The same gentleman has lately published an introduction to the law of Sweden, entitled, *Synopsis Juris Privati ad Leges Suecanas accommodata* (Gothoburgi 1673. 8vo.)

(70) This likewise Loccenius has translated into Latin: *Sueciæ Regni Jus Maritimum* (Holmiæ, 1674. 8vo.) and added to it a work of his own, *De Jure Maritimo*, Lib. III.

(*e*) See Buderii *Biblioth. Jur. Sel. c. vi.*

(71) With this title *Sueriges Rike's Lag*; and in Latin, *Codex Legum Suecicarum, ex Suecico Sermone in Latinum versus à Christ. Koenig. Holmiæ 1736. 4to.*

mer),

mer) (72); and in these village-courts, where twelve farmers always sit as assessors, justice is administered to the country people.

The towns have likewise their own courts, which, in the large, are filled by all the members of the corporation; but in the smaller, the mayor has the chief direction.

From these, as from the village-courts, appeals lie to the provincial-courts (Lagmansdomer), which are twenty-one in number (*f*); and from these, to the high tribunals, of which the first is at Stockholm, the second at Jonkoping, and the third at Abo (73). Each tribunal has a president, a vice-president, and several assessors, the four eldest of whom, in that of Stockholm, but in the two others only the two eldest, have the title of counsellors (*g*).

The party who thinks himself wronged by the sentence of a tribunal, may apply to the council of state for a Revision; as to this end was instituted the Justitz-Revision: and from this court, he may farther ap-

(72) A Harad, or Haradsöfdingsdome, consists of a certain number of villages. Besides these eighty-two harads, there are five Justitiariengerichte. Tuneld. S. VII.

(*f*) Tuneld, P. VII.

(73) In causes relating to life and character, a nobleman, or gentleman, is to be tried only before one of the upper tribunals. F. of G. § xxiii.

(*g*) Form of G. § xxiii.

peal to the states assembled in diet (*Recurfus ad Comitata*), who, for the final decision of the cause or the complaint against the court brought before them, appoint a deputation : though this is a resource not frequently made use of, being both very expensive, and at the same time attended with danger (*b*).

S E C T. XXXIX.

Sweden formerly kept no constant regular force on foot, except a few troops of horse for the king's state, the main body of the cavalry consisting of the peasants, who occasionally were armed, and led against the enemy. The author of the first military establishment was king Gustavus Vasa : he and his successors made use of foreign officers and soldiers, chiefly Germans and Scotch, to train and head the national troops, and likewise with a view of sparing them, that the kingdom might not be too much drained of its men (*i*). Gustavus Adolphus, besides being the first who formed a considerable regular army, greatly improved the discipline and art of war, so as to give it a quite different form and system, which, in time, has, with some

(*b*) Diet's Ord. § xiii.

(*i*) Puffendorf's Introduction to the History of Sweden, 1111, 1112.

additional improvements, obtained throughout all Europe (74).

The founder of the present military establishment in Sweden, was Charles XI; agreeable to his regulations, the land forces consist of levied troops, who are mostly foreigners; and national troops distributed over the country, and furnished and maintained by it. The nobility find and maintain the horse, every nobleman's estate of a certain extent being charged with a trooper and horse, arms, and accoutrements; as also with a dwelling, a piece of land for the support of himself and horse, together with the addition of a pecuniary pay.

The foot are furnished by the farmers, three farms generally finding a soldier, together with a dwelling, a piece of land, tillage-instruments, and household goods; likewise something of a pay; but cloathing and arms the crown provides. The officers and subalterns are maintained entirely by the crown; and instead of pay, have certain crown-lands assigned them, according to their several ranks.

The soldiery are exercised every week; and, for their improvement, once or twice

(74) The French themselves acknowledge that they are improved in the art of war since their having generals, as the duke of Saxe Weimar, and marshal Gassion, who learned their trade under Gustavus Adolphus. *Annales Polit. de St. Pierre.*

a year embodied into companies or regiments.

These troops, on taking the field, are entirely maintained by the crown; and in this case, for the more speedy recruiting them, a man must be kept in readiness to replace another. This is called the *Wargernings-Manfkap*. By means of this system Charles XI. had constantly on foot an army of 80,000 men; but the loss of so many countries in the northern wars must necessarily have reduced it.

Some years ago, the state of it was as follows:

I. H O R S E.

	Men.
1. Life guards. — —	136
2. The nobility's standard —	600
3. Life-regiment — —	1500
4. Five national regiments —	5000
5. Three regiments and one squadron of dragoons — —	3225
	10,461

II. F O O T.

1. Regiment of guards —	1800
2. Eight regiments of levies —	9000
3. Twenty-one national regiments	24238
4. Artillery — — —	3000
	38038
	48,499

N 2

To

To these must be added the abovementioned Wargernings-Manskap, which, in horse, makes about 10,000, and in foot 24,000 ; thus, in all about 34,000 men.

S E C T. XL.

Fortifica-
tions.

Nature herself has secured Sweden from foreign attacks, being half surrounded by the sea, and the coasts over-run with rocks, some blind, and shoals and sand banks, which it would be very dangerous for a stranger to venture among. On the land-side it is defended by vast mountains, heaths, torrents, swamps, fens, and lakes (*k*). The parts requiring the assistance of art, are, on one side, Finland, against the Russians, and on the other Bohuslehn against the Danes ; accordingly, with regard to the former several new fortifications have been made, at Helsingfors ; and in the latter, the frontiers are defended by fort Bohus, Marstrand, and Carlstein.

Stockholm, Oerobro, and Jonkoping, have large and well provided armories. At Wadstena is a house for invalids, where, however, no great numbers are maintained ; but there is another fund, from which a comfortable provision is made for 500 of-

(*k*) Tuneld, P. XV.

ficers,

ficers, 550 subalterns, and 4000 rank and file.

S E C T. XLI.

Sweden owes its naval power to king ^{Marine.} Gustavus, as the first who constantly kept ships of war of his own (75). His son Eric XIV. during his wars with Denmark, had sometimes a fleet of fifty sail at sea (76). But the marine of Sweden, after considerable augmentations under Gustavus Adolphus, was brought to its height under Charles XI. In the very long war of Charles XII. the conclusion of it being so unfortunate, the Swedish marine was reduced very low; but in the following twenty peaceable years, it has been gradually re-established; and at present it consists of twenty-eight ships of the line, from ninety to forty-two guns, twelve frigates from forty to twenty-six, three brigantines from thirty to eighteen, four sloops of thirty guns, twenty-four fire-ships, and bomb-ketches, with forty gallies.

(75) He also had gallies built by a Venetian shipwright, but soon laid aside.

(76) Among them was a ship of very extraordinary bulk called, the Mars, or Mucalos; and likewise the Jutehataren, i. e. the Jutehater, carrying above 200 guns; but it blew up in the engagement off Gothland, in 1564. Dalin. Del. III. cap. x. § viii. S. 582.

Sweden abounds in all naval stores, except a sufficiency of hemp. For the speedy manning a fleet all the maritime provinces and the islands are obliged to furnish and maintain a certain number, in all 20,000 men; who are distributed in Halland, Bleckingen, Medelpad, Angermanland, Gothland, Oeland, and Aland, on the very same footing as the national troops.

The fleet consists of three squadrons, one at Carlscrone, the second at Gottenburg, and the third at Stockholm, as the three strongest sea ports. Carlscrone, besides being the residence of the admiralty, has a very spacious and convenient dock; the making of which was a work of not less than nine years, from 1715, to 1724 (*l*).

S E C T. XLII.

Coins.

Sweden has gold, silver, and copper-money; though anciently only small silver pieces, called Penningar (77), were used; which in Sweden to this day, signifies money. They reckon by marks and pfennings,

(*l*) Busching's Geography.

(77) Till the time of king Magnus Smeck, pennies were the only coin. He was the first who coined Oertugers, as they were called, which were equal to eight pennies, and twenty-four of them went to a mark. Christ. Nettelblatt Commentat. de Jure circa Rem Nummariam in Suecia, Sect. I. § vi. p. 32.

and

and 192 pfennings make a mark (*m*). This, at first, was equal to a real mark of fine silver, but has been gradually so reduced, that the present Swedish mark, to a real mark of fine silver, is about 1 to 108 (78).

The first gold money, which were ducats, king Gustavus caused to be coined (*n*). Copper money was introduced by king Gustavus Adolphus, yet not to go for more than its intrinsic value (*o*). But the copper coin likewise suffered considerable diminutions; a piece of six dollars, or a Plate, which, at first, contained twelve pound and three quarters, was in the year 1664, reduced to ten; in 1674 to eight; in 1710 to six; and since to four pound and a

(*m*) Kohler's *Münzbelust*, i. e. *Medallic Amusement*, P. XX. p. 229,

(78) As a specimen of the gradual decrease of the Swedish silver mark, I shall here set down the proportion in several years between it and the real mark of fine silver, which in the year 1160 was worth two marks Swedish.

1277	—	3	1462	—	9
1335	—	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1489	—	10
1351	—	7	1509	—	13
1368	—	6	1528	—	16
1422	—	8	1541	—	19
1438	—	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1583	—	32

Nettelblatt, Sect. IV. § iv. p. 57, 58. The value of the Swedish mark has been ever since continually decreasing, till it at length is reduced to the abovementioned proportion.

(*n*) *Nett*. Sect. I. § vi. p. 33.

(*o*) *Ibid*. Sect. IV. § v. p. 60.

half (*). The small copper coins are also sunk to a great reduction (*p*).

Silver and copper money are reckoned at present by dollars and oers; likewise by marks and oers in both species.

A dollar is equal to thirty-two oers, and a mark to eight oers; consequently, four marks make a dollar. An oer is divided into four oerleins, and this into six pfennings.

The silver coins are worth three times as much as the copper; consequently,

1 Silver dollar is worth	3	copper dollars.
1 Silver mark	—	3 copper marks.
1 Silver oer	—	3 copper oers.

The real coined monies are,

I. In G O L D.

Ducats, which are equal to the usual coins of that name.

II. S I L V E R.

A species dollar is	}	12 marks or 96 oers.	
equal to —			
Carolines	—	2	16 oers.
Double	—	4	— 32 oers.

* The weight of the Plate has been reduced still lower, a copper Plate of twelve dollars weighing at present but eight marks and $\frac{2}{3}$, and ninety make a Stockholm ship-pound.

(*p*) Nett. Sect. V. § i. ii. p. 65—68.

S W E D E N.

185

Half	—	I	—	8 oers.
Quarter	—		—	4 oers.

Two Carolines are called a dollar Caroline, and three Carolines a rixdollar Caroline.

There are likewise silver pieces of 10, 5, 4, 2, and 1 oers, or stivers, as these pieces are likewise called. Under Charles XII. the silver coin was greatly raised; so that in 1716, the half carolines went for 12½ oers, the whole at 25, the double at 50; and in 1717, the pieces of 1 oer were raised to two, those of 2 to 4, those of 4 and 5 to 6, and those of 10 to 12 (79).

III. In C O P P E R.

Pieces of 12 dollars, or 4 dollars silver money.

9	—	3
6	—	2
4 ½	—	1 ½
3	—	1
2 ¼	—	¾
1 ½	—	½

The pieces of six dollars copper, or two dollars silver money, are particularly called

(79) Nettelblatt, Sect. IV. Mark VI. p. 62. But these coins in common currency have a still greater rise, namely, the Carolines to 32, and the double, the half, and quarter

Plates,

Plates, and this is the heavy copper money. The light or change money is as follows,

Pieces of six oer, or two oer silver money.

Slants	3	—	1	
Rundstuck	1	—	$\frac{4}{3}$	— or 8 Pf.
Fyr-car	$\frac{3}{4}$	—	$\frac{1}{4}$	— or 6 Pf.
Stucks	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	$\frac{1}{6}$	— or 4 Pf.

As to the value of the Swedish silver and copper money relatively to that of Germany,

	Schill.	Pf.
A double Caroline in Hamb. } cur. is —	16	0
A dollar S. M. oers —	13	
A mark silver money —	4	0
A five oer piece at seven oers	2	6
An oer — —	0	6
A dollar copper money —	5	3
A mark copper money —	1	3

But according to the Leipfick standard, a dollar silver money is reckoned at ten golden guilders eight pf. and thus nine dollars silver money make exactly four dollars.

The coinage was anciently the privilege of the kings only, till Magnus Ladulas

Carolines in proportion; so that they went for 100 per cent. more than they were coined for. So likewise the 10 and 5 oer pieces to 40 per cent. above their prime value.

granted

granted it to the bishops and counsellors of state; and they accordingly exercised this right without molestation; yet in the king's name, or that of the town where the money was coined (7). King Gustavus entirely reannexed it to the crown, to which it was continued even at the dissolution of the absolute sovereignty; but, with the proviso that no alteration should be made in the weight and standard of the coin, without the consent of the states (80).

S E C T. XLIII.

The king's revenues anciently arose entirely from the crown's property (81) or lands. But many of them being, in course of time, alienated, and thus no longer suf-

Revenues.

(7) Dalin, Del. II. c. viii. § xxiii. S. 299. cap. xvii. § xxi. S. 732.

(80) This the states have expressly reserved to themselves in the Form of G. § ix. and in the K's Declarat. of 1751. § 18. They unquestionably had herein an eye to baron Gorts's stamp on the copper-money, introduced towards the end of the reign of Charles XII. of which there were no less than fourteen different sorts; yet only nine of them became current. Each in the common course of trade was to go for a dollar silver money, and within 1715 and 1719, no less than eighteen millions of these stamped pieces were coined, which, by reason of the extreme lowness of their intrinsic value, have been the cause of unspeakable calamities. Kohler's Medallion Recreation, P. VI. § 233. and Nettelblad, Sect. V. § ii. iii. p. 71—73.

(81) This in the most remote times was termed Upsala-Oede, and consisted of certain places, islands, and lands, appropriated to the throne, and afterwards augmented with several other parcels of land. Dalin, Del. I. c. xi. § iii. S. 327. & cap. xiii. § xii. S. 395.

ficient

ficient for the king's due support, the states granted him certain tithes, dues, and other incomes (82). King Gustavus made a considerable addition to the property of the crown by sequestrating part of the church lands; but they were extremely diminished by several of his successors, and particularly by queen Christina. Charles XI. reassumed all those alienations, to the great improvement of the revenue: but in the long wars under Charles XII. the kingdom was so exhausted and loaded with debts, that, at the close of that king's reign, every branch of the finances was in the utmost distress and confusion. The states of the kingdom, however, have, as far as possible, endeavoured to redress those grievances, during the following interval of peace.

The ordinary sources of the national income at present, are the crown lands, the mines, the customs *, the excise, the

(82) Dalin. Del. II. c. viii. § xvii. xviii. p. 285—287. After all these grants, the whole revenue of king Magnus Ladulas is thought not to have exceeded 500 000 dollars of the present silver money; and a considerable part of this was paid in corn and provisions in lieu of specie. Dalin. l. c. p. 288.

* Among these the most considerable is that called the great sea-duty. In the year 1746, it was farmed for ten years, and all charges deducted has annually brought in 1,600,000 dollars silver-money; but in 1765, the farm was suppressed, and the duty put under the management of the commissioners of the customs.

stamps,

stamps, and other regalia, the poll-tax payable by the citizens and peasants, the profits of the national bank, together with the crown's share in the ecclesiastical tithes.

The extraordinary incomes consist in deductions from salaries, pensions, annuities, interests, rents; imposts on personal estates, moveable or immoveable, and such other payments as the states of the nation judge least burdensome.

The ordinary revenues for the year 1753, amounted to 6,332,706 silver dollars. In the year 1764, the ordinary and extraordinary incomes together, made 10 millions, 736,546 dollars 14 oers silver money; and the disbursements amounted to 12 millions 182,797 dollars, 16 oers.

Under the new form of government, the management of the national income is put on another footing, the states having reserved the superintendency of it to themselves; and, for the more regular conduct of its several departments, have instituted three several offices, an authentic state of the annual receipts and issues-out to be laid before them by the proper officers (*r*).

The king has no share in the management of the revenues, though, in the state

(*r*) Form of G. § xxx. xxxi. xxxiv.

abovementioned, a certain annual sum is assigned him for his sole disposal (83), and another set apart for extraordinary expences, in the application of which, however, he must take the advice of the council of state (r). To these must be added proper assignments for the support of his household and those of the queen and royal family, with all the several appurtenances (84).

S E C T. XLIV.

National
debt.

The debts contracted in the reign of Charles XII. have indeed been, in a great measure, liquidated by the care of the states; but the wars which broke out in 1741, and 1757, have loaded the nation with a fresh burden: this, according to an account of the secret committee, laid before the diet in 1765, amounted to 55,810,873, silver dollars, and with the agio to above sixty millions; the annual interest of which comes to 2,139,730, silver dollars (t).

(83) Namely, the privy-purse of 200,000 silver dollars for the king, and 100,000 for the queen.

(r) Form of G. § xxxi.

(84) The support of the king's household and the royal palaces, is an annual expence of about a million silver money.

(t) Merc. Hist. et Polit. May 1765, and other public accounts.

S E C T. XLV.

The Swedes have, of late years, exceeded any other European nation, in application and industry, for improving trade in general, and all rural affairs. The learned have employed their genius on these so useful subjects (85), and offered many beneficial schemes to the publick; the government and the states have seconded them; and private persons have laboured in experiments, some of which have succeeded beyond expectation. The consequence of this general zeal must be that Sweden will, in time, become a country every where cultivated and improved; as far as the nature of the soil admits of melioration.

Application
of the
Swedes in
improving
the coun-
try.

S E C T. XLVI.

Before the reign of king Gustavus, Sweden scarce afforded one manufacture, down to the very lowest crafts; Lubeck and other hanse towns supplying it with those kinds of necessaries. It was under this king that the Swedes first began to work metals, and other raw products of their country: in queen Christina's time iron, steel, and brass manufactures, tanning and soap-boiling, together

Manufac-
tures.

(85) Many of their Memoirs the Germans have thought worth translating.

with

with wool and filk looms, were set up ; and, during the last years of Charles XI. manufactures in general went on very profperously : but the long war under Charles XII. which became so extremely unfortunate to Sweden, brought them very low. Since the peace which succeeded that calamitous time, indeed no means have been spared to revive all useful arts and crafts ; and, by the liberal encouragement and care of the government and the states (86), trade is so far improved, that Sweden now makes all kinds of necessaries, and many articles of conveniency and splendor (87). A great objection, however, lies against the Swedish manufactures, that is their excessive dearness, being sometimes 50, 70, nay 100 per cent. above the price in other countries. This is partly owing to the great

(86) They have laid the king under an obligation, not only to maintain the fabrics and manufactures in their privileges, but likewise, in every respect, to assist and protect them ; and carefully to see, that all the ordinances which the states have made for their good, be duly executed. King's Assur. of 1757.

(87) The number of persons employed in the filk, woollen, linen, and cotton manufactures, amounted in the year 1754 to 14,000, of whom only 8000 worked in Stockholm. In the year 1752, the filk-looms were computed at 285, which, at the close of the year 1754, were increased to 387. The total amount of all the goods made in Sweden, from 1751 to 1754, was 12,632,406 silver dollars : one third being deducted for the purchase of materials, a gain remains to the nation of 8,216,040, silver money. Tuneld, p. 16, 17, 18.

wages of the artificers, and to Sweden's being obliged to buy many raw goods for its manufactures, from foreigners (88). This it is, which occasions the high price of Swedish manufactures; and farther, the comparative cheapness of foreign goods, causes great quantities to be run, whereas the Swedish, by reason of their dearness, find no vent abroad.

S E C T. XLVII.

The Swedes at present carry on a considerable trade, both inland and foreign. Inland trade. A great conveniency to the former is the rivers and lakes (89); and, in the southern provinces, it is much facilitated by the goodness of the roads. Accordingly it far exceeds that in the northern provinces,

(88) The wool of the Swedish sheep, for instance, is so coarse and bad, that without foreign wool the manufacturers could not carry on their business. The Swedes, indeed, have not been wanting to improve their sheep, by importing other kinds; but the new breed requiring a particular fodder and management, the keeping of them is chargeable, and consequently must affect the price of their wool.

(89) For the advancement of inland-trade, and no less to avoid paying the heavy toll of the Sund, a navigation between Gottenburg and Stockholm, across the country, was set on foot; and endeavours have been used for opening a communication by means of several rivers and canals, between the lakes Malar, Hielmar, and Wener, and the Elf in Gothland; but hitherto the work has failed by reason of the triple water-fall in the Elf, called Trollhatta; yet a great number of hands are still employed to overcome that obstacle, by new canals and sluices.

where, besides the want of such commodiousness, the paucity of its inhabitants, and the distance of the towns, do not admit of any considerable business.

S E C T. LXVIII.

Foreign.

Though the situation of the kingdom of Sweden, on the Baltick and the north sea, be very advantageous for foreign trade, the Swedes, for some centuries, availed themselves but little of this advantage; the Hanse towns engrossing the whole trade of Sweden, and with great privileges. The Lubeckers particularly, had obtained from king Gustavus an exclusive right, which, however, was soon revoked. The Dutch afterwards got possession of this trade; and, not long after, the English came in for a share. During the French war, to which the peace of Ryswick put an end, and wherein Charles XI. had kept himself neuter, the Swedes began to enlarge their foreign trade, and make voyages to France and Spain in ships of their own. In the beginning of the war for the Spanish succession, they made farther progress; but the kingdom became so distressed and exhausted towards the latter end of the reign of Charles XII. as to be incapable of carrying on any traffic. These calamities, however, being
fol-

followed by happier times, the maritime commerce of Sweden has not only been restored, but encreased beyond what it ever was at any other period.

In Europe the Swedes trade to the prin- In Europe,
cipal ports in the Baltick, to Holland, Eng-
land, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and
to the Levant (90), exporting all kinds of
wooden-ware, planks, masts, tar, pitch,
pot-ash, iron, steel, copper wrought and
unwrought, &c. for which there is a de-
mand; and bring back wine, oil, resin,
almonds, lemons, oranges, &c. and many
kinds of raw goods for their manufactures.
This trade they chiefly carry on with their
own ships, which they likewise hire to fo-
reigners, with considerable profit.

The Swedes, at present, have no trade and to Chi-
na.
to Africa and America; and what few ships
they send to Asia, go only to China.

Hitherto their imports continue to ex-
ceed their exports, and thus the balance of
trade lies against them. They, however,
are not without hopes of giving a turn to
the scale (u), and the rather as the states

(90) The Levant trade was formerly conducted by a par-
ticular company, which being abolished in 1757, it was left
open to all the subjects of Sweden; and, for its security,
the crown entered into treaties with the pyratival states, and
the Ottoman Porte.

(u) Tuneld, P. II.

of the kingdom zealously promote whatever can contribute to so desirable a change (91).

S E C T. XLIX.

Trading
Companies.

Though the whole reign of Gustavus Adolphus was one continued series of war, yet did not that excellent prince overlook the increase of commerce. Soon after his accession to the throne, he founded a company for the Guinea trade; and in the year 1626, he granted a charter to William Uffelinx, a native of Antwerp, for a company of trade and navigation to Asia, Africa, America, and the south countries (x); which made a settlement in Africa, and founded a colony in North-America, under the name of New Sweden. But this soon fell into the hands of the Dutch (92), who, at the peace of Breda in 1667, ceded it to the English, from whom it received the name of New-York, the Swedes retaining

(91) The zeal of the states in promoting trade and husbandry appears, among other instances, from the commission instituted in 1756, for drawing up "a System of Commerce and Husbandry," adapted to the nation's circumstances; but this commission not answering the end, was abolished in 1765, after an expence of 128,698 dollars, copper money.

(x) Jo. Marquardi Fr. de Jure Mercator. et Commerc. sing. Append. p. 380. et seqq.

(92) This colony, not being supported by Sweden, the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of the Dutch, who had a settlement near it. Account of the Europ. Settl. in America, Vol. II. p. 184.

only

only the privilege of nominating Lutheran ministers in seven churches, for performing divine service in the Swedish language (*y*). But these, and other subsequent trading companies, had but a short existence.

At length, in 1731, the East-India company, still subsisting, was erected (93), with a charter for trading to all countries from the Cape of Good Hope, as far as Japan (*z*), though hitherto they have not gone beyond China. The constitution of it, is something particular. On the return of the ships, and the sale of the cargoes, it divides the whole gain among the proprietors, and raises a fresh fund for fitting out and supplying the ships. Each ship, at its return, pays the crown 50,000 silver dollars, and this exempts it from all other customs and duties.

S E C T. L.

A bank, which had been under the management of private persons and merchants, failing in the year 1666, the national bank

National
bank.

(*y*) Mem. concern. Christine Reine de Suede, Tom. III. p. 203.

(93) This company, in some measure, owes its origin to the suppression of the Ostend East-India company. Hist. of the East-India Company established in Sweden, in the Mod. Univers. Hist. Vol. XI. p. 246, 252.

(*z*) Hist. of the East-India Company, ubi supra, p. 253.

was founded in the year 1688, as an essential conveniency to trade, and, at the same time, an advantage to the finances. It is a bank both of exchange and loan, receiving capitals at four per Cent. and lending on sure pledges, as gold and silver, and lands, at six per Cent. All the national revenues pass thro' the bank; and the unwrought copper is likewise delivered there. The three upper states of the kingdom are jointly and severally guarantees of this bank, which indeed gave rise to its first credit. Accordingly it is managed by nine directors, of whom each of the guaranteeing states names three, who are members of their respective bodies. These, during the session of the diet, give an account of their management to the bank committee, which consists of members, of the secret committee; and their power ceases on the meeting of the states; so that the produce of the bank, which is estimated at between two and three millions silver money, is at the disposal of the three states, and, circumstances so requiring, may be appropriated to the public service. But as the bank hath, by too great loans on immoveables, encreased its current capitals to such a degree, that, instead of six millions of silver money, which are supposed to be in the bank, its bills do not amount
to

to less than seventy millions (94); not a few are inclined to look on the situation of this bank as something critical and suspicious, if a great number of the creditors, both foreigners and natives, should take it into their heads to turn their paper into money. And this seems the rather to be apprehended, as several persons, both those who are acquainted with the mysteries of the bank; and they who are not, begin to withdraw their capitals, though at four per Cent. and lay them out on lands, which bring them in scarce two (a).

S E C T. LI.

Sweden has twenty-four trading, or, as they are called, Staple towns, i. e. such as ^{Trading} _{towns.} are empowered to export home goods in their own ships, and import those of foreign countries; and to trade both with foreigners and natives (95). But Stockholm and Gottenburg have a great advantage over

(94) The multitude of bank notes is attributed to a pamphlet called, "The Causes of the Course of Exchange being so high in Sweden;" and published during the sitting of the diet in 1762.

(a) Description of the bank of Sweden, by M. Busching.

(95) The other towns are not to trade abroad, being allowed only to traffick in the country, and sell their goods by wholesale at these staple-towns, which, though lying on the sea, are called land-towns.

the others, the national banks being kept in the former, and the latter being the residence of the East-India company.

S E C T. LII.

Conduct of
state-affairs.

The conduct of the most important affairs of government, both foreign and domestic, is lodged in the council of state, at which the king himself presides. It consists of two departments, of which the first is the foreign and war department; the second, that of the law (96).

The other high offices are, 1. The three court tribunals, the war-office, the admiralty, the chancery, the treasury, the exchequer, the mine-office (*b*).

S E C T. LIII.

Government of the
provinces.

The provinces in Sweden are governed by twenty-four land-captains, part of whom are military, and others of the civil class (*c*). But Finland and Pomerania have each their governor-generals.

(96) See the Form of G. § 17. The counsellors of state have at present a salary of 12,000 silver dollars, whereas some time ago, it was only 6000.

(*b*) Concerning all these, see Form of G. § xxxii.—xxxiv.

(*c*) See above, § vi.

S E C T. LIV.

The end of the present form of government is liberty; for the support of which there can be no better method, (and indeed it is absolutely necessary) than concord, and laying aside all party-spirit, the consequences of which must be detrimental to the public liberty: for, to the dissensions among the states was chiefly owing the great revolution under Charles XI.

And as Sweden now chiefly employs it-^{Foreign.}self in promoting its domestic welfare, and improving trade and manufactures, with every useful craft, art, and science; and the continuance and success of these undertakings depend on the continuance of the peace, its capital maxims is, to avoid a war, and all engagements which may involve the kingdom in such a misfortune. On this account some hold the alliance of Sweden with France to be a wrong measure (97), as obliging it sometimes to come to a rupture with its neighbours (98). But

(97) M. de Real Science du Gouvernem. P. VI. p. 561. However M. de Real magnifies advantages which both crowns may draw from this alliance, and represents it as particularly natural and necessary relatively to Sweden; these advantages are mere appearances, and do not at all agree with the present state of things.

(98) Of this France is so persuaded, that M. de Real, who wrote about the year 1750, foretold the last Swedish war with Russia. Science du Governem. P. VI. p. 560.

this

this has often hurt it the more, from the French subsidies falling very short of the expences of the war and the losses incurred by it (*d*).

S E C T. LV.

Treaties
with other
powers.

The crown of Sweden having, since the last century, made a very considerable figure in Europe, and taken part in the general transactions, must necessarily have formed alliances, treaties, and other conventions with foreign powers. Of these, the most remarkable are,

I. With the EMPEROR and the
EMPIRE.

1. The peace of Osnabrugh the 24th of October 1648 (*e*). 2. Executive treaty at Nuremberg 26th of June 1650 (*f*). The peace of Nimeguen on the 5th of February 1679 (*g*); 4. Treaty with the emperor Joseph for restoring the protestant religion in Silesia, 1st of September 1707 (*b*).

(*d*) See the Pref. State of Europe, Ch. iv. p. 65.

(*e*) Schmauff. Corp. Jur. Publ. p. 197. et in Du Mont. Corps Diplom. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 469.

(*f*) Schmauff. p. 899. Du Mont. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 549.

(*g*) Du Mont. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 359.

(*b*) Id. Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 221.

II. With

- II. With FRANCE (*i*).
 III. With GREAT BRITAIN (*k*).
 IV. With the UNITED PROVINCES (*l*).
 V. With DENMARK (*m*).
 VI. With the Electors of BRANDENBURG, afterwards kings of PRUSSIA.

1. Treaty concerning the limits of Pomerania of the 1st of May 1563 (*n*). 2. Treaty concerning Ducal Prussia being acknowledged a fief of the crown of Sweden, the 17th of January 1656 (*o*); 3. Offensive and defensive alliance of the 15th of June 1656 (*p*); 4. Treaty concerning the abolishment of the vassalage of Ducal Prussia, and ceding the sovereignty of it to the house of Brandenburg, of the 10th of February 1656 (*q*); 5. Alliance of the 1st of December 1673 (*r*); 6. Treaty of peace at St. Germain en Laye, of the 29th of June 1679 (*s*); 7. Alliance for ten years, with a fe-

(*i*) See chap. iv. § lxxxi.

(*k*) See chap. v. § lxxiii.

(*l*) See chap. vi. § lviii.

(*m*) See chap. vii. § liii.

(*n*) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 47.

(*o*) Id. p. 127.

(*p*) Id. p. 137.

(*q*) Id. *ibid.* P. II. p. 148.

(*r*) Id. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 246.

(*s*) Id. *ibid.* P. I. p. 408. This treaty the king of France may be said to have concluded in Sweden's behalf.

cret article for maintaining the Protestant religion in Poland, of the 10th of January 1686 (*t*); 8. The peace of the 10th of February 1720 (*u*); 9. Alliance of the 29th of May 1747 (*x*); 10. Peace of the 22d of May 1762 (*y*).

VII. With the Elector of BRUNSWICK LUNENBURG.

Peace concluded on the 20th of November 1719 (*z*).

VIII. With POLAND.

1. Six years' truce of the 25th of September 1629 (*a*). 2. Armistice for twenty-six years of the 20th of September 1635 (*b*). 3. Peace of Oliva of the 3d of May 1660, in which were included both the emperor and the elector of Brandenburg (*c*); 4. Alliance with king Stanislaus of the 18th of November 1705 (*d*); 5. Peace

(*t*) Dumont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 123.

(*u*) Id. Tom VIII. P. II. p. 21.

(*x*) Rouffet Recueil d'Actes & Traitez, Tom. XIX. p. 486.

(*y*) Merc. Hist. & Polit. Juin 1762. p. 677. But this treaty was never made public.

(*z*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 15.

(*a*) Id. Tom. V. P. II. p. 594.

(*b*) Id. Tom. VI. P. I. p. 115.

(*c*) Id. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 303. Acta Pacis Olivensis inedita cum Observationibus Boehmii, 2 Tomi Wratislaviæ, 1763, 1764.

(*d*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 173.

with

with king Augustus II. in which he renounces the crown of Poland 24th of September 1706 (*e*).

IX. With R U S S I A.

Treaties of peace, 1. At Stolbova, of 13th of February 1617 (*f*); 2. At Kardis, of the 1st of July 1661 (*g*); 3. At Ny-
stadt of the 30th of August 1721 (*b*); 4. Alliances of the 22d of February 1724 (*i*); 5. Of the 5th of August 1735 (*k*); 6. Peace on the 17th of August 1743 (*l*).

X. With the O T T O M A N P O R T E.

Alliance of the 22d of Dec. 1739 (*m*).

S E C T. LVI.

Sweden has produced many eminent war-
riors and statesmen; Birger Jarl, father to king Waldemar, and regent; Matthias Kettilmundson, who, in the minority of Magnus Smeck, was administrator of the

Warriors
and States-
men.

(*e*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 204.

(*f*) Is to be seen in Truer's Introduction to the History of Muscovy, p. 457.

(*g*) Du Mont, Tom. VI. P. II. p. 363.

(*b*) Id. Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 36.

(*i*) Id. ibid. P. II. p. 76.

(*k*) Roussët. Supplém. au Corps Diplom. Tom. II. P. II. p. 536.

(*l*) Roussët Recueil d' Actes, Traitez, Tom. XIX. p. 64.

(*m*) Là Même, p. 2.

kingdom; the three Sturs who held that office in the time of the Union of Calmar; chancellor Oxenstiern. Those great commanders Baner, Torstenson, Charles Gustavus Wrangel, Reenschild, Steenbock, Lowenhaupt, stand immortalized in the Swedish annals.

S E C T. LVII.

Historians.

The most reputable historians among the Swedes are, Snorre Sturleson (99), Eric Olai (100), John Magnus (1), Messenius (2), Loccenius (3), Puffendorff (4), Vere-lius (5), Dalin (6), and Botin *.

(99) Hems Kringlu eller Konungs-Saga, sive Historia Regum Septentrionalium, quam cum versione Suecica & Latina, notisque edidit Jo. Peringskiöld. Holmiæ, 1697. 2 Tom. fol. This antient Islandic historian Holberg always mentions with great commendations.

(100) Suecorum Gothorumque Historiæ Libri VI. editi à Jo. Messenio. Holmiæ, 1615. 4to.

(1) Gothorum Suecorumque Historia, ex probatis antiquorum Monumentis collecta et in XXIV. Libros redacta. Basileæ, 1558. 8vo.

(2) Scandia illustrata, seu Chronologia de Rebus Scandiæ, h. e. Chronologia de Rebus Sueciæ, Daniæ, Norwegiæ, atque una Islandiæ Groenlandiæque, tam ecclesiasticis quam politicis, à Mundi Cataclysmo ad annum Christi 1612. Edidit. Jo. Peringskiöld, Tom. I. XIII. XV. Holmiæ, 1700-1704. 2 Vol. fol. Part XIV. has been lost. Buderii Biblioth. Hist. Sel. cap. xxxii. § 4. p. 160. seqq.

(3) Historia Suecorum, à primo Rege Sueciæ usque ad Carolum XI. Regem Sueciæ deductæ Libri IX. accedunt Antiquitatum Sueo-Gothicarum Libri III. Francof. et Lipsiæ, 1676. 4to.

(4) Introduction to the History of the Kingdom of Sweden, with a Continuation of it from the year 1679 to 1750, written in German.

S E C T. LVIII.

Accounts of the state of Sweden have been written by Wexionius or Gyllenstolpe (7), Oernhielm (8), Hermannides (9), Robinson (10), and others (11). Accounts of the state of Sweden.

(5) *Epitomarum Historiæ Sueo-Gothicæ, Libri IV. et Gothorum rerum extra patriam gestarum, Libri II. Stockholmiæ, 1730. 4to.*

(6) *Suea Rikes Historia ifrån des Begyunelfe til wara Tider, Stockholm 1747-1762, 4to.* In the XXXIII^d Volume of the English Universal History, is the History of Sweden. The author of it chiefly follows Loccenius. To Dalin he seems an utter stranger.

* *Utkast til Swenska Folkets Historia, i. e. Sketch of a History of the Swedish Nation.*

(7) *Épitome Descriptionis Sueciæ, Gothiæ, Fenningiæ, &c. et subjectarum Provinciarum, Aboæ, 1650.*

(8) *Descriptio Regni Sueciæ.*

(9) *Peninsulanum Regnum Sueciæ seu Historico-Geographica Descriptio illarum partium Suecicarum quæ Balthico Mari à Germanicis separantur provinciis. Amstelod. 1671. 12mo.*

(10) *Robinson's Present State of Sweden, a French Translation of which has been published at Amsterdam, and enlarged according to the several editions.*

(11) *Deliciæ sive Amoenitates Regnorum Sueciæ, Gothiæ, magnique Ducatus Finlandiæ, Lugd. Batav. 2 Vols. 12mo.*

Historical, Political, and Geographical Description of the Kingdom of Sweden. Two Parts, 1708. 8vo. a German work, printed at Leipzig and Francfort.

Eric Tuneld's Inledning til Geographien ofwer Sweriges Rike, Stockolm 1762. 8vo.

The History of Sweden in the XXXIII^d Volume of the English Modern Universal History, is preceded by an account of the state of Sweden, of which a judgment may be formed from the author's including Livonia and Ingermanland among the present provinces of Sweden. The XLIII^d Volume of that work contains likewise another Account, but not a whit better.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. IX.
OF POLAND.

SECT. I.

POLAND, antiently a part of Euro-^{Name.}pean Sarmatia, according to some authors derives its name from the Polish word Pole, a plain; for the country, after the forests were hewn down and prepared for agriculture, was as it were turned into a smooth level (*a*). But it is far more probable that the word Poland, and particularly the Latin name Polonia, is of foreign origin, and afterwards was adopted by the inhabitants (1).

(*a*) Dlugoffi Hist. Polon. Lib. I. p. 22. Neugebauer. Hist. Polon. Lib. I. p. 4.

(1) The celebrated M. Lengnich observes, that foreign authors who wrote the history of this people in Latin sooner

S E C T. II.

Situation
and con-
fines.

This kingdom lies between the 47th and 58th deg. of North lat. and the 35th and 51st East long. Its length is computed at 240 German miles, and its breadth 200. It confines westward on Silesia, the Marquifate of Brandenburg, and Pomerania; southward on Hungary and Transilvania, the Turkish empire, and particularly Moldavia and Beffarabia; eastward on Ruffia; and northward on Pruffia and the Baltic*.

S E C T. III.

Air and
weather.

The climate in the fouthern provinces is temperate, but the northern have fevere winters (*b* ; fo that lakes, fens, and rivers, are frozen; and fometimes the cold is fo intense as to fplit trees (2) : the air in Poland however is healthy and pure.

than the natives, made ufe of this appellation, and called the inhabitants Polenios, Pollianos, Bolanos, Polonos, and the country Polenium, Pollianam, Poloniam; the laft name as the moft ufual has been adopted by the Polish writers, though the Poles call themfelves Polacy. Lengnich Diff. de Polonorum Majorib. § 4. in fine ejus Hift. Polon. p. 424.

* M. Dogiel, provoft of the college of Vilna, has given an account of the boundaries of the kingdom in a particular work intituled, “*Limites Regni Poloniæ & ex Originalibus authenticis. Vifnæ, 1763.*”

(*b*) Mart. Cromeri Descript. Polon. lib. I. p. 6.

(2) *Sævæ hiemes terram fluminaque advincunt, quia violentia Aquilonis nullis montibus repercuffa, liberum ut in*

ficcis,

S E C T. IV.

The country is for the most part smooth ^{Mountains,} and level, particularly towards the west and north; but the southern parts are overrun with the Carpathian mountains, separating Hungary and Russia from Poland, and spreading themselves into several arms (c).

S E C T. V.

Poland is watered by many large rivers, ^{Rivers,} the Vistula, Warta, Niester, Bogg, Nieper, Dwina, Memel, and others, besides several lakes, the most extensive of which is the Gopler, five German miles long, and half such a mile in breadth (d).

S E C T. VI.

The soil of Poland is very fruitful, plen- ^{Fertility,} tifully supplying the inhabitants with all necessaries. Its horses are swift and strong, though not large; it likewise produces great numbers of horned cattle and sheep; its wild animals are stags, deer, hares, elks, buffaloes (3), wild asses and horses, bears,

pelago cœlum rapit. Barclaius in Icon. Animor. cap. viii. p. 448.

(c) Cromer, p. 6.

(d) Ibid. p. 8, 9.

(3) The manner of hunting and killing buffaloes is described by Cromer, Lib. I. p. 10.

wolves, linxes, foxes, polecats, otters, &c. It abounds in tame and wild fowl, and amidst so many rivers, streams, and lakes, cannot want variety of fish. The bees in Poland are of two kinds, tame and wild, the latter make their abode in hollow trees in the forests (*e*).

The vegetable kingdom is very considerable in Poland, both for fruit-trees and esculent plants and herbs; especially vast forests of oak, fir, beech, and pine (*f*), but for nothing more than its immense fertility in corn, so as to supply the wants of other nations.

The mineral kingdom affords silver (*g*), lead, and some with a mixture of silver; iron, quicksilver, marble, alabaster, amber, vitriol, salt petre, rock, and spring salt, with some mineral waters (*b*); gems, ochres, and other useful minerals have been discovered of late.

S E C T. VII.

Division of
the country.

Poland, according to its political constitution, is divided into three chief provinces, Little-Poland, Great-Poland, and the Great dutchy of Lithuania: Little-Poland contains

(*e*) Cromer, Lib. I. p. 9, 11. Andr. Cellarii Noviff. Descrip. Regni Polon. p. 19, 20.

(*f*) Cromer, Lib. I. p. 6, 7.

(*g*) Vid. Lengnich. Jus. publ. Regni Polon. Lib. XI.

(*b*) Cromer. Lib. I. p. 7.

eleven palatinates; Cracow (4), Sendomir, Lublin, Podlachien, Reuffen, Belzk, Podolia, Kiow, Volhinia, Braclaw, and Czernichow; likewise the dutchies of Zator and Ofwiecim, but which since 1564, have been united under the former name, together with the two free countries of Halicz and Chelm.

Great Poland consists of nine palatinates: Posen (5), Kalisz, Siradien, Lenczicz, Brzesc, Inowroclaw, Ploczk: Maffovia; Rava, the two free countries of Wielun and Dobrizim, and Gnesen, which was erected into a palatinate at the extraordinary diet held in the year 1768.

The Lithuanian palatinates are nine; Wilna, Trock, Smolensk, Polock, Novogrodec, Witepsk, Brxeskie, Mscislaw, Minsk, and the dutchy of Samogitia (*i*).

Every palatinate is divided into circles; one, two or more of which make a grod or district, under the government of a nobleman. The large palatinates of Maffovia

(4) To this palatinate likewise belongs the county of Scepus, or Zipferland, which the emperor Sigismund, as king of Hungary, mortgaged to king Ladislaus II. in 1412.

(5) This includes the starosty of Draheim, which in 1657, was mortgaged to the elector of Brandenburg for 120,000 dollars, and has not yet been redeemed.

(*i*) Sketch of the present Constitution of Poland. (a German work.)

and Rava are divided into several tracts, and these again into circles and grods (*k*).

S E C T. VIII.

Besides the provinces properly constituting the kingdom of Poland, some countries are become joined to it by war, or treaty, as Prussia, Livonia, Courland, and Semigallia.

Prussia.

Western Prussia, afterwards called Polish or Royal Prussia, was by the treaty of Thorn, in 1466, ceded to Poland by the Teutonic knights, as the former sovereigns of the country; but Eastern Prussia they retained, though as a fief under the sovereignty of Poland. In the year 1525, king Sigismund I. granted it as a ducal fief to the grand master Albert, margrave of Brandenburg. His male issue failing in 1618, it devolved to the electoral house of Brandenburg. By the treaty of Velau, in 1657, Frederic William, elector of Brandenburg, had the infeofment superfeded, and Prussia made a free and independent country to him and his male heirs; but on their failure it was to revert to the crown of Poland as a fief, on condition of its being again granted in that quality to the margraves of Branden-

(*k*) Sketch of the present Constitution of Poland.

burg,

burg, of the Culmbach and Anspach lines. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, in 1701, erected the dutchy of Prussia into a kingdom, at which Poland raised a great clamour, and never could be brought to acknowledge this new royalty (*l*), till the year 1764.

Polish Prussia contains three palatinates, Culm, Marienburg, and Pomerell (*6*). Though incorporated into the kingdom of Poland it retains its liberties, and the Prussian nobility partake of every privilege of the Polish (*m*); so that Prussia is looked on as a part of Great Poland.

Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, formerly belonged to the order of the Enſiferi. John Bafilowitz czar of Muscovy, invading these countries in 1558, with such a formidable army, that the Enſiferi were utterly unable to face, the last grand-master Gottard Kettler, in 1651, gave Livonia and Esthonia to Sigismund Augustus king of

(*l*) Vid. Lengnich Jus. Publ. Regni Poloni, Lib. I. cap. x. § 1, 2, 3. p. 35.

(*6*) The countries of Butow and Lauenburg formerly were a part of this palatinate. King Sigismund Augustus, in 1526, had granted them as fiefs to the dukes of Pomerania, who, however, had been in possession of them before; and that house failing in 1637, these lands reverted to Poland. But by the treaty of Bromberg in 1637, they were ceded to the elector of Brandenburg, yet under every feudal obligation.

(*m*) Vid. Ejusd. Jus. publ. Pruss. Polon. § 2. 4. p. 17, 18.

Poland, as great duke of Lithuania, and retained Courland and Semigallia under the title of a dutchy to himself and his male heirs, but as a fief of Lithuania. Both Esthonia and Livonia were very soon brought under the dominion of Sweden, and at the treaty of Oliva, in 1660, formally given up by Poland, except a small spot on this side the Dwina; and this constitutes the palatinate of Livonia, which is included in Lithuania (*n*).

Courland.

Poland and Lithuania uniting in 1659 as one political body, Courland at the same time became an immediate fief of the crown of Poland. The states of Poland intended, on the death of the last duke Ferdinand, the sole remainder of the Kettler family, to sequestrate this dutchy; but the states of Courland, in 1726, chose for his successor the celebrated count Saxe, natural son to king Augustus II. whose election, however, the states of Poland immediately declared void. But duke Ferdinand, at length, dying in 1737, the Courlanders, at the general recommendation of the czarina Anne, could not avoid choosing the count of Biron chamberlain of her household, which paved his way to higher promotion, being, on the decease of the czarina in 1740, nominated

(*n*) Vid. Lengnich. Hist. Polon. p. 65, 222.

regent

regent of the Russian monarchy. But this likewise proved the occasion of his fall, he and his whole family being banished into Siberia by Anne the new Russian sovereign. Courland was without a duke for the space of eighteen years, till, in 1758, Charles, son of Augustus III. was elected, by the interest of Elizabeth, empress of Russia. But her demise was soon followed by another revolution; the duke of Biron was not only recalled from his tedious exile, but by the vigorous support of the czarina Catharine II. recovered the dutchy of Courland, in 1763, and the new duke Charles was obliged to relinquish it (o).

S E C T. IX.

Several other countries, formerly united to Poland, have been rent from it. Among these were Silesia, of which, though it had its own princes, yet the sovereignty was lodged in the king of Poland. King Casimir the Great in 1335, granted it to king John of Bohemia; and his successor king Lewis, in 1375, renounced all claim to it by a fresh treaty concluded with the emperor Charles IV. as king of Bohemia.

Countries
lost.

Silesia.

(o) New Genealogical and Historical Accounts, P. XIII. and P. XXVI.

Fraustadt, however, after the first of these treaties; and, after the second, the dutchies of Severien, Aufschwitz, and Zator, which had been parts of Silesia, reverted to Poland (*p*).

Livonia. Livonia was also, for some time, a province of Poland; but, as we have before observed (*q*), it was first reduced by the Swedes, and, at length, in 1721, confirmed to Russia by the peace of Nystadt.

*Walachia
and Moldavia.*

In the reign of king Ladislaus Jagello, in 1386, Peter, prince of Walachia, to which Moldavia was then annexed, and in 1403, his son Alexander, acknowledged the king of Poland as sovereign. Elias, and Stephen, sons to the latter, quarrelling about the succession, king Ladislaus III. made a partition between them, adjudging Moldavia to the former, and Walachia to the latter, both continuing under the sovereignty of Poland till Sigismund III. who ceded them to the Turks by a disadvantageous peace in 1621 (*r*).

*Severin,
Smolensko,
Czernichow,
Kiow.*

This king, on the other hand, made several conquests in Russia, adding to Poland Smolensko, Severien, and Czernichow,

(*p*) Vid. Lengnich Jus. Publ. R. Pol. Lib. I. c. xi. § 1—3. p. 43—46.

(*q*) S. § 18.

(*r*) Lengnich. I c. § 6. p. 47, 48.

which

which were formally yielded, in 1634, to his son Ladislaus IV. at the peace of Viasma; but the Russians not only recovered them from his brother and successor John Casimir, but likewise made themselves masters of the Ukraine and Kiow; and the whole was absolutely given up to them in two treaties, in 1667 and 1686 (s).

S E C T. X.

The Poles are a branch of the Slavi, that vast nation which spread itself through all the eastern parts of Europe; and, according to no improbable conjecture, are descended from the Lazi (7), who, in the times of remote antiquity, dwelled in the country of Colchis, along the Black Sea, but afterwards gradually removing from their old habitations, came into Great Poland, and about the fifth century, settled near the Warta (t). But the old Polish historians make a prince called Lechus, the founder of the nation and kingdom, dating his coming in the sixth century. But every thing related of

Origin, and short history of the Poles.

(s) Vid. Lengnich. l. c. § 5. p. 47.

(7) Mr. Lengnich confirms this from the name of Polacy, by which the Poles call themselves in their own language, and imports the descendants of the Lasi. See Dissert. de Polonor. Major. § 2, 4, 5.

(t) Lengnich. Dissert. de Polonor. Majorib. § 4. 11. p. 422, & seqq.

him,

him, and his ancestors, down to Piaſte, is fabulous and dark, and many particulars notoriously falſe. This Piaſte, who is ſuppoſed to have been a burgher of Krufwica in the palatinate of Brzeck, was choſen prince of Poland about the middle of the ninth century (8). Mieciflaus I. one of his ſucceſſors, embraced Chriſtianity, and ſettled it in Poland. His ſon Boleſlaus I. aſſumed the title of king, though his predeceſſors had been ſtiled only dukes of Poland. He was ſucceeded by his ſon king Mieceslaus II. with whom his conſort Richeza, living very uneaſily, fled with her ſon Caſimir, into Germany, which on the king's demife, occaſioned an anarchy. Caſimir was, in the interim, become a Benedictine monk; but, at the ſollicitation of the Poles, and with the pope's permiſſion (9), he laid aſide the monaſtic veſture, and took on him the

840.
964.
1025.

1034.

1041.

(8) His family has flouriſhed in Poland and Sileſia above 800 years; and, from him, the native kings of Poland are to this day called Piaſtes.

(9) Which however, he would not do, but under the following odd conditions: 1. "Ut de ſingulis capitibus —
"quotannis obulus unus in lucernam perpetuo in æde D.
"Petri Romæ arſuram pendatur, (qui etiamnum S. Petri
"nummus dicitur. 2. Ut omnes Poloni rotunda in mo-
"rem monachorum tonſura capillorum utantur;—3.
"Feſtis ſolemnibus quando ſacra peraguntur, ut ſinguli
"equites faſciam lineam candidam in modum ſtolæ, qua in
"ſacris utuntur ſacerdotes, ac diaconi, e collo ſuſpenſam fe-
"rant." Neugebauer, Hiſt. Polon. Lib. III. p. 58.

government. His son and successor Boleslaus II. having, with his own hand, killed Stanislaus bishop of Cracow, at the very altar; and being, for such an act of impiety ^{1079.} excommunicated by the pope, was driven out of the kingdom, and his brother Ladislaus I. advanced to the throne. ^{1080.} This prince however contented himself with the title of duke instead of king; and his successors, for a considerable time after, made use of no other, yet without any diminution to the sovereignty. For his son duke Boleslaus III. ^{1138.} divided Poland and the countries belonging to it, among his four sons, giving to Ladislaus the eldest, Cracow, Siradien, Lenciez, Silesia, and the supreme jurisdiction; to Boleslaus, the next in age, Mazovia; to Miecislaus the third, Great Poland; and Henry the fourth son had Sandomir. It was at the same time prescribed, that the eldest of the family should hereafter have the country and city of Cracow, with a kind of superiority above the other dukes. This partition occasioned a contest between the brothers: Ladislaus instead of acquiescing in it, insisted on having the whole; so that his brothers forced him to fly into Germany. Hereupon Boleslaus IV. ^{1146.} the second brother, had Cracow and the supreme government; and Ladislaus dying
in

in the interim, he generously invested his
 1173. sons with Silesia (10). He was succeeded
 1178. by the third brother Miecislaus III. as the
 latter was by Casimir V. who had been ex-
 cepted out of his father's partition, but now
 received an invitation from the people of
 1194. Cracow, who had dethroned Miecislaus. On
 his demise it was conferred on his eldest son
 Lesco, who reduced a part of Pomerania
 called Pomerell. His second son Conrad
 had Masovia; and he it was who called
 in the Teutonic knights to his assistance,
 1226. against the Pagans of Prussia; this gave
 the knights an opportunity of settling them-
 selves in Prussia, and at length, they made
 themselves masters of the whole country.
 In the interval from king Miecislaus I. to
 the thirteenth century, the kings and dukes
 of Poland have acknowledged the supreme
 jurisdiction of the German empire, by pay-
 ing a yearly tribute (11), which dependency,

(10) These were Boleslaus, Miecislaus, and Conrad. Their descendants continued possessors of Silesia for 500 years, and became divided into several branches, the last of which failed in 1675, in the person of George William, duke of Leignitz, Brieg, and Wolau.

(11) This *Conring de Finib. Imp. Germ. Lib. I. cap. xviii. p. 307---338*, shews, by several testimonies from the old German historians. He has been answered by Mr. Schultz, professor of law at Dantzick, and afterwards at Francfort on the Oder, who has published a quarto, intitled, "*Tractatus Historico-Politicus de Polonia nunquam tributaria*, Gedani, 1694, 4to. in which he strangely wrests the

how-

however, they availed themselves of the troubles under the emperor Frederic II. to set aside.

On the demise of Lesco duke of Cra-^{1227.}cow, instead of a regular succession, the supreme power was bandied about between the several lines of the Piasse family; and during these fluctuating times, Poland was terribly ravaged by swarms of Asiatic Tartars. At length, Premislaus, descended from Miecislaus III. being made sovereign of Cracow and Great Poland, was crowned king at Gnesen, but not long after^{1295.} murdered. Wenceslaus king of Bohemia, who was before possessed of Little Poland, now ascended the throne of Great Poland: strengthening his possession by marrying Richsa, the only daughter of king Premis-^{1300.}laus, he held it till his death. But at length Ladislaus Loftec, by his singular cou-^{1305.}rage, again consolidated the whole king-^{1320.}dom; for which he is ranked among the kings of Poland, by the name of Ladis-

passages adduced by Conring, and charges the old historians with great uncertainty and infidelity, and likewise confronts them with the Polish modern writers. A celebrated literator, and of great authority in the history and policy of Poland, judges far more equitably of the matter. "Germanis, qui ætate priores, quique illis temporibus, de quibus testimonia perhibent, vixerunt, omnem negare fidem, suis autem domesticis scriptoribus, qui recentiores, ac incertis auctoribus antiqua memorant, credere durum et partium studio obnoxium videtur." Lengnich Jus. Publ. R. Pol. Lib. II. cap. ii. § i. p. 55.

laus I. he left the throne to his son Casimir II. surnamed the Great. With this king, to whom Poland owes its laws and courts of justice, and the building of many towns and royal seats, the Piaste male line failed; and Lewis king of Hungary, his sister's son, with the previous consent of the states, succeeded him. On his death, the Poles made choice of his younger daughter Hedwig for their queen, and married her to Jagello, a Pagan duke of Lithuania, who, however, was afterwards baptized by the name of Ladislaus II. This was the opportunity which united Lithuania with Poland under the title of a great duchy, and proved the means of its being blessed with the light of the Gospel. This king reduced the princes of Walachia (12), under the sovereignty of the kingdom of Poland. His son and successor Ladislaus III. was chosen king of Hungary on the death of Albert II. But this drew him into a terrible war with the Turks, and he fell in the battle of Varna. The Poles, on this, chose his brother Casimir III (13). Under his reign the Prussian nobility and towns

(12) Moldavia at that time was part of Walachia. See above, § ix.

(13) He had been great duke of Lithuania since 1440, and now united it with Poland under one sovereign.

subjected themselves to the crown of Poland, on account of the oppressions which they suffered from the Teutonic order; and in the war to which this change of masters gave occasion, the knights were obliged to cede to the king, the Western or present Polish Prussia, and to acknowledge the sovereignty of Poland over the eastern part, which they were allowed to retain. On his death, his eldest son Ladislaus, then king of Hungary, was overlooked; and John Albert, the second son, elected king of Poland; and Alexander the third son, was chosen great duke of Lithuania. The latter, on the decease of the king his brother, was advanced to the throne of Poland; and since that time Lithuania has continually remained under the same sovereign as Poland. After his death, his brother Sigismund, the youngest of king Casimir the third's sons, was elected his successor. In his time Smolensko was reduced by the Russians; on the other hand, a fresh war breaking out with the Teutonic order, at the peace which terminated it, the sovereignty of Poland over the eastern part of Prussia, was asserted beyond all exception (14). Sigismund Augustus, his son and

(14) See above, § viii.

successor acquiring, as great duke of Lithuania, a right to Esthonia and Livonia, possessed himself of them; he obtained at the same time the feudal sovereignty over Courland and Semigallia, which he erected into a dutchy. He afterwards brought about such an intimate connection between Poland and Lithuania, that both jointly choose one king, meet in one diet, and enjoy all privileges in common.

1572. The Jagellon male line failing in Sigismund Augustus, the next election fell on
 1573. Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France; but on his brother's crown devolving to him, he secretly withdrew out of Poland, imagining to continue
 1574. at the head of that kingdom, though residing in France. The Poles, however, without the least regard to him, proceeded to a fresh election, and chose king Sigismund's eldest daughter Anne, and Stephen Bator, prince of Transilvania, for queen and king, on condition that they should marry. King Stephen governed with great reputation, and obliged the Russians to relinquish all their
 1581. possessions in Livonia.

Upon his death, which happened in the prime of life, the Poles elected Sigismund III. at that time hereditary prince, and afterwards king of Sweden; he being
 1586. by

by his mother Catharine, youngest daughter to Sigismund I. related to the Jagellon family: but by this accession, he lost the ^{1587.} crown of Sweden; and the Poles, displeas'd with his administration, declined assisting him in the recovery of that kingdom. He, ^{1604.} however, availed himself of the disturbances in Russia, taking from them Smo- ^{1610.} lenko, Severien, and Czernichow; but was not able to compass his design of placing his son Ladislaus on the throne of that empire: and as little did he succeed in his endeavours to assert his sovereignty over Walachia and Moldavia against the Turks, being oblig'd to make a full surrender of those provinces to the Grand Seignior. In ^{1621.} his Swedish wars against Charles IX. and Gustavus Adolphus, he was so unsuccessful, that Poland lost Livonia and a part of Prussia; the latter of which, however, his eldest son Ladislaus, some years after, recovered. He was succeeded by his brother ^{1635.} John Casimir, whose whole reign was a ^{1648.} continued series of misfortunes. The re- ^{1655.} volt of the Cossacks, the war which this brought on with Russia, and the Swedish war, occasioned by the king's renewal of his claim to Sweden, proved extremely detrimental to Poland, which was oblig'd to cede the sovereignty over Ducal Prussia to the ^{1660.}

1667. elector of Brandenburg, Livonia to the crown of Sweden, and to the Ruffians Smolensko, Severien, Czernichow, the Ukraine beyond the Nieper, and Kiow (15). These and other crosses affected the king to that degree, that he resigned the crown, and ended his days in France, as abbot of

1669.

St. Germain.
His successor Michael Coribut Wiefniowitzky, in whose promotion to the throne, the gentry had been the chief actors, was not much liked by the great men in the senate; and a fresh revolt breaking out among the Cossacks, involved him in a war with the Turks, which his distressed situation obliged him to terminate by a very disadvantageous, and even insulting peace.

1673.

Such a complication of misfortunes soon put an end to his life. But John Sobiesky, who was chosen his successor, recovered all that had been lost, and by his defeat of the Turkish army then besieging Vienna, and other successes, he acquired a very great reputation. The close of his reign, however, was so displeasing to the Polish nation that, at the next election, instead of

1683.

1696.

1697.

(15) Kiow, at the thirteen years truce made in 1667, was ceded to the Ruffians only for two years, and was to be returned on an equivalent given for it; but in the perpetual peace made in 1686, the Poles made an absolute surrender of it.

paying any regard to his sons, one party chose the prince of Conti, and another gave their suffrages for Frederic Augustus elector of Saxony. But the latter, since known by the name of Augustus II. carried the elec-^{1700.} tion. A war commenced by him in Livonia against Sweden, was of very bad consequence. Charles XII. carrying all before him in Poland, got a party to confer the crown on Stanislaus Lescinsky, palatine of Posen (16); and the Swedes having penetrated into Saxony, Augustus was obliged to acknowledge the new king, and make a solemn renunciation of the crown. But on the defeat of Charles XII. at Pultawa, Au-^{1709.} gustus recovered the crown of Poland (17); and maintained it amidst all the disturbances raised by the opposite party.

On his decease, France found means to^{1733.} raise a strong party, who declared in favour of the late king Stanislaus, whilst another espoused the interest of Augustus III. son to the deceased king, and who, by the as-

(16) It does not appear that Charles XII. had, at first, any intent of dethroning king Augustus, but was put upon it in a conference between him and cardinal Radzie Jowsky. *Memoires sur les dernieres Revolutions de Pologne où on justifie le Retour du Roy Auguste*, p. 17.

(17) See the abovementioned *Memoires*, p. 233, 239, where the author shews the invalidity of the peace of Alt Ransstadt, relatively to a renunciation of the crown of Poland.

1735. sistance of the Russian army, took possession of the kingdom, which Stanislaus was obliged to quit. He afterwards renounced the Polish crown, in consideration of having Lorrain during his life. Under Augustus III. Poland enjoyed a continual peace. This king, having lost his hereditary Saxon dominions in the war between Austria and Prussia, was obliged, contrary to his custom, to reside in Poland during the last seven years : upon the peace he was restored, but died soon after at Dresden ; and Stanislaus Augustus, count Poniatowsky was, at the recommendation of Russia and Prussia, unanimously chosen in his stead.
- 1763.
- 1764.

S E C T. XI.

Character of
the Poles.

A poet of the middle ages gives this description of the Poles :

— — — “ Gens aspera cultu,
Terribilis facie, morum feritate timenda,
Horrendo violenta sono, truculenta minaxque,
Prompta manu, rationis inops, adsueta rapinæ,
Vix hominum se more gerens, horrore ferino
Sævior, impatiens legum, cupidissima cædis,
Mobilis, inconstans, acerrima, lubrica, fallax,
Nec dominis servare fidem, nec amare propinquos
Sueta, nec affectu pietatis docta moveri (u).”

(u) Guntheri Ligerin. Lib. VI. v. 26.

But this picture, drawn in such strong colours, and perhaps overcharged, relates to an age, when most European people still retained a great alloy of barbarism, and, in the main features, were pretty much alike. Since that time, the former savageness has every where worn off, and the Polanders, like other nations, are become more civilized. The present inhabitants of the kingdom of Poland are a conflux of several nations. Besides the Aborigines, and the descendants of the Slavi and Wendi, it has not only great numbers of German tradesmen and artificers scattered in the towns, but whole villages of that nation, who formerly came into the country as colonists, and have brought great advantages to it by their skill, industry, and labours (18). Trade has likewise drawn many Armenians into Poland; and great numbers of Tartars are settled in Lithuania (x): but of foreign inhabitants (19), the Jews make by far the

(18) The Poles owe the introduction of handicrafts and arts to the Germans; accordingly most of the Polish words for tools, and other necessaries in common life, are manifestly German. Newgebur, Lib. I. P. XI.

(x) Cellarius, p. 280.

(19) It was under the reign of Casimir the Great, that such great numbers of Jews settled in Poland, that prince having for his mistress a Jewess whose name was Esther, and for her sake he granted several considerable privileges to that people, and even allowed the daughters he had by her to be brought up in Judaism. Duglós, Lib. IX. p. 1110. But

majority, and some parts have whole towns of them (*y*). All these nations differ very much in their appearance, manners, and customs. The proper Poles are of a middling stature, or rather something tall, and well shaped, with a fresh countenance and very light hair. Both sexes are extremely fond of fine cloaths, and as fickle in their fashions. They are accounted of a candid and open temper, void of fraud or ill design, soon angry, and soon reconciled. They cannot be exceeded in courtesy and kindness towards foreigners, whose manners they readily adopt, and even imitate their way of clothing, which makes them so variable and different in their dresses. They are great admirers of any thing foreign; and so fond of travelling, that it often consumes their whole fortune. They love feasting, and parties of pleasure, which, however, are not without their advantages, as frequently bringing about reconciliations of differences, and creating friendships; but sometimes they prove as detrimental, their excesses, too common in Poland, often giving rise to implacable enmities. The

the privileges of the Jews have since been reduced to the exercise of their religion and usury. At present they are not allowed to farm any of the revenues, and besides, are under a heavy capitation-tax. Neugebauer, Lib. I. p. 11.

(*y*) Cellarius, p. 26, 27.

commonalty have a very hard time of it, and live only from hand to mouth; whereas the quality and persons of wealth, keep a splendid table, loaded with foreign and domestic products. The Poles were formerly esteemed a martial people, and the nobility still retain that quality; though the present long peace has not allowed any opportunity of shewing their courage, except in the intestine disturbances among parties (x).

S E C T. XII.

The Polish language is a daughter of the Language. Slavonian, being common to all the nations descended from the Slavi; that the Poles, Russians, and Bohemians understand one another, though with some difference of dialect. It has not, however, hitherto been duly cultivated and brought to a critical regularity, which must partly be attributed to the general use of the Latin, not only by the learned, but in the law and other instruments. Of late, however, it is become the object of attention, and every day growing regular, elegant, and copious (20).

(x) Cromer, Lib. I. p. 15, 16. Neugebauer, Lib. I. p. 11, 12, 13. Cellar. p. 29, 30, 39, 40.

(20) A proof of this is the late introduction of Polish plays. M. Bohomeletzky was the first author of dramatic pieces in his native language. Janotzky Excerpt. Polon. Literature, Vol. I. p. 82.

The Teutonic language is likewise very common, great numbers of Germans being settled in the country, and the trade with Germany rendering it very necessary. The Jews likewise generally make use of the High Dutch. In Polish Prussia, both German and Polish are current (*a*).

S E C T. XIII.

Number of
inhabitants.

The number of inhabitants in Poland is scarce to be determined for want of accounts and principles on which such a calculation may be grounded. But that the country is not well peopled may be concluded from the few large and populous towns. Besides, according to the observation of a celebrated writer and well versed in things of this nature, Poland is overrun with vast forests, fens, and moors; many fertile tracts lie uncultivated; farmers, contractors, projectors, and undertakers, instead of being the better for what improvements they make, are sure when they have got any thing a little considerable, to be molested and made a prey, if not banished the country; farther, its fabrics and manufactures are very thinly sown. From these and other causes the said writer infers that Po-

(*a*) Vid. Cromer, Lib. I. p. 11. Neugebauer, Lib. I. p. 10, 11. Cellar. p. 18. 20.

land cannot at most have above twelve millions of inhabitants (*b*); though others make them to exceed twenty millions.

S E C T. XIV.

They consist of three classes, the nobility, the burghers, and peasants; most of the latter are villains fixed to the estates, and cannot quit them without permission from their lords. The burghers live in the towns, and are either traders, artificers, or common labourers; the two latter have generally a very hard time of it.

The principal class is composed of the nobility, who alone enjoy any share of the so much vaunted Polish liberty. Hereditary nobility is derived only from the father, without any regard to the mother's pedigree. Several families among the Polish nobles have the title of prince and count, but with this difference; some deriving it from their ancestors, have this title given them even in public records (21); whereas others, to whom their titles were granted by the emperors, are not to make use of them in

(*b*) Sufmilche's Display of the Divine Oeconomy, P. II. ch. xx. § 391.

(21) As the princes Czartorisky, Sangusko, Radzivil, Wisniowezky, the counts of Tencin; but the two last families are now extinct.

public records (22). The king of Poland himself cannot confer these honours on any subject; the nobility would by no means allow of it, as a breach of that equality which they are very zealous for preserving. Their delicacy on this point carried them so far in 1673, that they who should make use of foreign titles and arms were declared infamous; so that all the difference of rank and honour among the Polish nobility arises from their posts and not their titles; and as a farther token of equality, the nobility term one another brothers. Persons of rank indeed use the like appellation towards those who are much their inferiors (c).

The nobility's privileges are very considerable, being alone capable of holding great employments and of possessing lands (23), and all ores and minerals in them are their property; besides being exempt from quartering soldiers. The nobles pay no taxes, customs, and tolls; and their persons are so respected, that no magistrate, nor the king himself, can imprison a nobleman, unless legally convicted of a crime; theft, rob-

(22) As the Ossolinkys, Lubomirskys, Sapiehas, Jablonowikys, Sulkowskys, &c.

(c) Lengnich. Jus. Publ. R. Pol. Lib. III. c. i. & c. ii.

(23) Some cities, as Cracow, Vilna, Lemberg, Lublin, and the large Prussian towns, hold the like right.

bery, murder, a rape, setting fire to a house, and high treason excepted. They can buy off manslaughter, and the law itself makes a great difference between putting a nobleman and a commoner to death. None but a native can enjoy the privileges of nobility; so that foreigners desirous of such a distinction must apply for naturalization, and this not to the king, it being out of his power, but to the states assembled in diet (24); for though the king creates noblemen, the power of conferring the privileges of nobility the states have reserved to themselves.

The nobility forfeit their honours by trade, handicrafts, or other dealings, and even by accepting of any office in the towns (25); and by crimes which render the delinquent infamous: the diet, however, can reinstate him (*d*). But of all the privileges of the nobility, the most important unquestionably is their great share in the government of the kingdom, as will appear from the following particulars.

(24) During the reigns of the two Saxon kings, many German families were naturalized, but the expence was such that it is said to have cost Count Bruhl no less than a million of dollars. *Life and Character of Count Bruhl.*

(25) This however must be understood only of small towns. *Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. ii.*

(*d*) *Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. ii.*

S E C T. XV.

Limitation
of the anti-
ent preroga-
tive.

The ancient prerogative of the kings of Poland was, in some measure, unlimited : many things they did without consulting the great men, and when they condescended so far, instead of being bound by their opinion, they determined the affair according to their own pleasure (*e*). But on the failure of the Piaste male-line, and the abolition of hereditary right, the prerogative became gradually curtailed, and the first step towards this diminution was taken in the reign of king Lewis. Under the following kings of the Jagellon line, it was made a part of the constitution, that the great men, now, called senators, should not only be consulted, but their advice followed. Under king Ladislaus, the whole nobility were summoned to the public consultations, particularly at the imposition of new taxes : and Casimir III. solemnly promised not to make any new laws, nor order a general Postpolite, without the consent of the nobility. But it was under the kings John Albert and Alexander that the new constitution received its completion, a law passing in 1505, that nothing new should be

(*e*) Lengnich, cap. iii.

ordained without the council of state and the deputies of the nobility ; and this was the origin of the states of Poland.

S E C T. XVI.

These, accordingly, are composed of the States. senators and nobility. The former, by their civil and ecclesiastical employments, Senators. are the king's born counsellors. Among these are the archbishops and bishops, the waywodes, castellans, and some high officers of state. The archbishops and bishops, of whom I shall speak farther in the sequel, take place of all other senators. Next to these are the waywodes : these, Waywodes. from their Latin title Palatinus, appear to have been originally court-officers, and, at the time when Poland was divided under several princes, each court had a palatine. In war-time they headed the troops, and, on this account, were called Waywode, i. e. which in the Polish language signifies " Commander of an army." Poland being united under one king, waywodes were appointed over certain provinces, therefore called wojewodzwo, or waywodships ; for these occur later in history than the waywodes. In these they exercise the supreme power, and hold courts. The police

lice is likewise lodged in their hands ; and for these several affairs they appoint deputy waywodes, who must be gentlemen, natives of Poland, and settled in the waywodship. On the nobility's being raised, in time of war, the waywode leads them into the field (g).

Castellan.

The castellans, who derive their name from the Latin word *Castellum*, were formerly governors of the fortified places ; and as such managed the crown-lands dependent on them, and had the administration of justice. But these functions have long since been superseded ; and all that remains to them now, besides their votes in the senate, is their title and rank. In war time they are the waywode's commissary ; and, in his absence, they lead the nobility of the waywodship into the field. The castellans of Cracow, Vilna, and Trock, rank with the waywodes, and sit among them ; and a farther singularity is, that the castellan of Cracow takes place of all waywodes, and is the first counsellor of state (26). The

(g) Lengnich, Lib. III. c. iv.

(26) The reason of this is unknown, but the castellans of Vilna and Trock owe their taking place of some waywodes to their dignities being of a more ancient date than the late waywodships. On the same account the starost of Samogitia has the precedence of several waywodes. Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. vi.

other

other castellans are divided into the first and second rank. The former bear the title of the waywodships, and sit on stools in a row with the waywodes; but the latter are named from the circles, into which the waywodships are divided, and sit on benches behind them (*b*).

Some of the principal ministers and officers of the kingdom of Poland, and the great dutchy of Lithuania, who, by reason of their posts, were about the king's person, have risen to be senators, such as the crown-marshal, the great-marshal of Lithuania, the crown-chancellor, the great-chancellor of Lithuania, the crown-vice-chancellor, the vice-chancellor of Lithuania, the crown high-treasurer, the high-treasurer of Lithuania, the crown high-steward, the high-steward of Lithuania. At the extraordinary diet in 1768, the generals were admitted among the senators, and the field marshals to rank next to the grand-marshal of the court, and the lieutenant field marshals next to the marshal of the court. Their employment is incompatible with that of a waywode or castellan, no person being to hold two senatorial posts (*i*): yet a bishop may be crown-chancellor

Ministers of
state.

(*b*) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. vii.

(*i*) Id. Lib. III. cap. viii.

and crown vice-chancellor, except only the archbishop of Gnesen, and the bishops of Cracow and Cujavia ; as to the former there is indeed a law, by which that post is to be alternately filled by a spiritual and a temporal senator, and to be bestowed at the diet (*k*).

Thus there are five different classes of counsellors of state. 1. The spiritual senators, who are the two archbishops of Gnesen and Lemberg, and fifteen bishops, in all seventeen ; 2. The waywodes and those of a like rank, being thirty-eight in number ; 3. The castellans of the first rank, thirty-three ; 4. Of the second rank, forty-nine ; 5. The ten ministers of state, five of Poland, and five of Lithuania : thus one hundred and forty-six persons compose the whole body of the senators (*l*).

Nobility.

In the nobility are included all the gentry holding immediately of the king, and who are not senators. These, in every waywodship, or free-province, choose, by majority of votes, a certain number of deputies, as their representatives at the diet ; and who are called Nuncii Terrestris, or country-messengers. It was not till Casi-

Country
messengers.

(*k*) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. viii.

(*l*) Sketch of the Constitution of Poland, a German work, p. 70.

mir III. that the nobility sent representatives to the diet. They must be settled in the waywodship for which they are chosen; and, by an act of the diet in 1736, of the Roman Catholic religion *. They receive a pecuniary allowance from their respective waywodships and free countries (*m*).

The number of the country messengers or representatives is, from

Little Poland	—	—	70
Great Poland	—	—	56
Lithuania	—	—	54
Total			<u>180</u> (<i>n</i>)

besides those of Prussia, the number of whom is uncertain (*o*). The towns were formerly summoned to the diet; but of late they have lost that privilege, excepting some which still send deputies in an inter-regnum, or to the confederations, and election of a king.

S E C T. XVII.

The Polish diet is properly a meeting of ^{Polish diet.} all the senators and country representatives,

* This unjust law was abolished in the extraordinary diet of 1768, so that at present Dissidents may be chosen representatives.

(*m*) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. iii. cap. ix.

(*n*) See the Table added to the Sketch of Poland.

(*o*) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. ix.

to the number of about 330 persons ; and is either ordinary or extraordinary, besides the occasional, as at an interregnum, for electing and crowning the king, which shall be farther treated of in the sequel.

Ordinary.

The ordinary diets are summoned by the king's *Universalia*, nine weeks before their meeting, circular letters being sent to the senators to receive their opinion on the several objects of the national deliberations. The place and time of the diet were formerly at the king's pleasure, but they are now settled by the laws, according to which the ordinary diets must be held every two years, and twice successively at Warsaw, and the third time at Grodno ; a regulation founded on the main division of the kingdom of Poland. Its continuance is fixed to six weeks, and its opening to the next Monday after Michaelmas, when it is ushered in with mass and a sermon, the king, the senate, and the country-representatives assisting. After divine service the senators repair to their hall, and the representatives to their usual chamber, which they call *Stuba*. The method of business in the diet, is by an ordinance of 1736, regulated in the following manner.

1. The country-representatives choose their marshal, or president, who is commonly called the

the marshal of the diet (27). Then comes on 2. The confirmation or exclusion of those representatives whose election is contested. Afterwards, 3. The country representatives, with the marshal at their head, repair to the senate-hall, where the king is seated on his throne: the marshal addresses him in a speech, which is answered by the crown-chancellor. And then, 4. The compact of election is read; after which the representatives are at liberty to offer their complaints against any violation of it. Afterwards the crown-chancellor, in the king's name, lays open the objects of the deliberations, which include every political concern, as laws, war and peace, alliances, finances, the army, trade, police, &c.

6. Important and secret affairs, as declarations of war, proposals of peace, and alliances, are discussed by the primate and marshal of the diet, with a committee of senators; and their several resolutions on these heads are laid up in the archives, till circumstances allow of their being made public.

(27) This choice should be made immediately on the very first day, and by a majority of votes; but it is often attended with such delays, that the whole six weeks which the diet is to last, are elapsed before so much as a beginning is made. Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xi.

7. The marshal of the diet makes a request to the king, that he will be pleased to dispose of the vacant lands, dignities, and employments; and adjourns the diet till his request is executed.

8. The counsellors of state give their votes on the objects of the deliberations.

9. The great chancellor nominates three deputies of the senate, for drawing up the new laws and acts of the diet.

10. He likewise appoints a commission of counsellors of state, for examining the accounts of the high-treasurer and master of the ordnance.

11. The envoys give an account of their negotiations, and at the same time deliver their papers into the king's hands.

12. The agents for the armies deliver their representations and petitions to the two chancellors. All this being gone through:

13. The country representatives return to their chamber; and

14. Take into consideration the king's proposals, and what new laws are intended. In the interim:

15. The diet-courts are held by the king and the senate, jointly with eighteen of the country representatives. Lastly, the marshal of the diet having, in the chamber of representatives, enlarged on all the objects

jects of the deliberations, makes a speech and resigns his office. Afterwards,

16. He again, at the head of the country representatives, attends the king in the senate-hall, which is called the re-assembly of the country representatives with the senate, and must be done five days before the breaking up of the diet; though this term is not always observed. Here he reads over the resolutions of the representatives (28); and if approved of both by them and the senate (29), they become laws, and are called Constitutions. Hereupon a number of senators are nominated to attend the king's person till the next ordinary diet; and the decrees of the diet-court are read over. Lastly, the marshal of the diet answers the king in another speech, congratulating him on the happy issue of the diet: hereupon the king, attended by the states, repairs to the cathedral, where *Te Deum* is sung, and the diet breaks up (q). This is likewise done on a happy conclusion of the diet, which, however, is very seldom the

(28) If this continues till night, as it often happens, no candles are to be brought in but for the marshal of the diet who reads the resolutions. Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. ii.

(29) Every representative having a right to oppose what he had before assented to in the chamber of representatives, idem.

(q) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. ii.

case, for every act of the diet must be approved of with such unanimity, that the opposition of one single person quashes what had been approved by the whole assembly. Now such an opposition is very common and declared in these words: "Nie Masz Zgoda, not content;" "Nie Pozwalam, I don't allow of it (*r*):" the privileges of the country representatives are particularly great in this respect, that all the determinations of the diet depend on their unanimous consent; for which the chamber of representatives is called *Officina Legum* (*s*).

The king had formerly a greater authority in the diets; and when any of his proposals miscarried, it was owing to the joint and loud opposition of most of the representatives and many of the senators (*t*): but this opposition, which was formerly a right of appertenance only to a few, every one has in time come to assume, and most abusively; such a single opponent not only putting a stop to the proceedings of the diet, but by his contradiction, if he quits the town where the diet is held, renders it invalid or dissolved. The first instance of this was in 1652, when Siczinsky, represen-

(*r*) Sketch of the Constitution of Poland, p. 121.

(*s*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. c. ii.

(*t*) Ibid. Lib. III. c. ix.

tative of the district of Upitz in Lithuania, left the diet on declaring his dissent. Tho' this procedure was at that time exclaimed against by the states, it has proved so far a precedent, that, after many of the like instances, the right of a single opposition in 1718, received the sanction of the law (u); and under the former government there was scarce a diet which did not break up tumultuously (30). The opposition of one single representative is of force at all times, and in all places, before and after the choice of a marshal; in the beginning, in the middle, and at the close of the diet; in the senate and in the chamber of representatives, before and after the re-assembly with the senate; and the consequence of his departure from the place where the diet is held, is that all the former resolutions become void (x).

Though the Senators have an equal right of opposing any resolutions and interrupting the proceedings of the diet, there is not a single instance of any senator having caused a dissolution. This being a very unpopular and even irritating step, they leave it to

(u) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. ix.

(30) The primate at the opening of a diet on the 10th of May 1764, declared in his speech on that occasion, that in seventy-four years, only one diet had set its due time.

(x) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. ii.

the representatives, among whom, having always their creatures, they easily bring about what they themselves do not care to be seen in (*y*).

The diet may likewise, by common consent, be prorogued on account of the multitude of affairs; but in these cases the resolutions which have passed remain valid (*z*).

S E C T. XVIII.

Extraordinary diets.

The diets summoned by the king, with the consent of the senators, out of the usual time, are called extraordinary diets. They are so far different from the ordinary, as generally lasting only a fortnight, or three weeks; neither are all the usual ceremonies observed at them; and, by an ordinance of 1726, they are never to be held but on the most urgent occasions (*a*).

S E C T. XIX.

Country diets.

Previous to both the ordinary and extraordinary national diets, are held the country-diets, that is, the meetings of the nobility and gentry in the palatinates and the free countries. These are held in pursuance of

(*y*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. ii.

(*z*) Id. Ibid. cap. ii.

(*a*) Id. Ibid. cap. ii.

the king's Univerſalia, in order to take into conſideration the objects of the approaching diet, to chuſe representatives, and give them their credentials and inſtructions (*b*).

If the national diet has ended peaceably, another provincial diet is held, under the denomination of the Report-diet, the representatives making a report to their conſtituents of what has been tranſacted in the national diet. The day of this meeting is at preſent appointed by the king and ſenate, whereas the country-representatives uſed to ſettle themſelves at the national diet (*c*).

Other provincial diets are likewise held annually, for appointing deputies to the upper tribunals of the kingdom and the great dutchy; and likewise for adjusting the particular concerns of the nobility in the palatinates. Theſe are ordinary provincial diets; the extraordinary is that called by the palatine on the vacancy of an office, to chuſe four candidates who are laid before the king for his nomination of the ſucceſſor (*d*).

(*b*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. ii.

(*c*) Id. Ibid. cap. iii.

(*d*) Sketch of the Conſtitution of Poland, p. 142.

S E C T. XX.

Assembly
of the
council of
State.

At the conclusion of a diet, before the senators separate, the king holds a *Senatus Concilium*; which, however, is not a matter of indispensable obligation. The high chancellor signifies to them, in circular letters, the subject of the intended deliberations, and the meeting is held in the senate hall, the king sitting as president on his throne. If the diet has been brought to an amicable conclusion, they take into consideration the execution of the acts of the diet, the sending of envoys on small affairs, the preserving a good understanding with foreign powers, the repair of public edifices, and the like, which do not belong to the diet. If the diet has been dissolved by opposition, the council considers whether to call an extraordinary, or wait the next ordinary meeting; and how, in the mean time, to preserve the public tranquillity. On some occasions extraordinary assemblies of the council have been held, and these are entirely at the king's pleasure. Their form and method of proceeding is the same as in the ordinary meetings; the resolutions of both depending on the majority of votes, which, however, have not a legislative force

till approved by the states assembled at the diet (*e*).

In dangerous junctures, the council of state may meet, in the king's absence, and even enquire into the king's proceedings (*f*).

S E C T. XXI.

These, and all the other abovementioned meetings, take place in peaceable times; but in any civil commotions and threatening circumstances, endeavours are used for quelling the disorders by armed assemblies, called Confederationes, formed either by all the states of the kingdom, or by some palatinates, or by the nobility and gentry; and this either in an interregnum after the king's demise, or whilst he is living; and either for him or against him (*g*). These confederacies, which have been frequent in Poland, shew the constitution to be fundamentally defective; as for the removal of one evil, another no less must be employed. The confederacies are signed and sworn to by all the confederates, who elect a marshal and council for the preservation of or-

Public associations.

(*e*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. c. iv.

(*f*) Ibid. Lib. II. cap. xii. § vi. p. 338, 339.

(*g*) Lengnich, Dissert. de Polonor. Confoederat. § xi.

der amidst these disorders (*b*). A general association being formed in the time of an interregnum, the whole commonwealth rests on it. It determines war and peace, makes laws, and conducts the most weighty affairs of government, proceeding by majority of votes, without any regard to a single dissident (*i*). The confederacies of palatinates, in opposition to others, are little less than an intestine war (*k*). The like may be said of the associations of the nobility, sometimes formed against the king and the senate, and commonly called Rokosz, though they might more properly be called Insurrections (*l*). The confederacies of the army differ from all the foregoing, and formerly were set on foot when not duly paid; the consequences were, that the soldiery renounced all obedience to their commanders, electing others under the title of marshals and counsellors, imposing taxes and provincial contributions, and living at discretion (*m*). But since the year 1717, when a constant fund was settled

(*b*) Id. *ibid.* § xviii. xxi. xxvii. et *Jur. Publ. R. Pol. Lib. IV. cap. v. § 3, 4. p. 391, 392.*

(*i*) Lengnich, *Id. Polon. Confoeder. § xvi. xvii. et in Jur. Publ. R. Polon. Lib. IV. cap. v. § 4. p. 392.*

(*k*) Id. *de Polon. Confoeder. § xxxviii.—xxxix.*

(*l*) *Ibid. § xxx.—xxxvi.*

(*m*) *Ibid. § xli.*

for the payment of the troops, no such disturbances have been heard of (*n*).

S E C T. XXII.

When the confederates separate, the management of public affairs is committed to a council of senators and representatives, called Walna Rada. It is held in the chamber of the representatives, without the customary formalities, and proceeds by majority of votes. Sometimes such a great council is made a diet; as a great diet, on some dissolutions, has been turned into a great council: likewise, if no public confederacy be on foot, the states at the diet, may appoint a great council (*o*).

Assembly of
the great
council.

S E C T. XXIII.

The king, in the most weighty concerns of the kingdom and government, as war or peace, important embassies, taxes, the coin, laws, judicial sentences, decision of quarrels occasioned by difference of religions, is to conform to the will of the states (*p*). In less important affairs, he governs jointly with the council of state; and with them can

Prerogatives
of the king.

(*n*) Sketch of the Constitution of Poland, p. 137, 138.

(*o*) Lengnich de Polon. Confoeder. § xxii.—xxv. et in I. P. R. Pol. Lib. IV. cap. v. § ix.—xi. p. 396, 397.

(*p*) Id. Lib. IV. cap. iii. § i. ii. p. 398, 399.

convene ordinary and extraordinary meetings (9). A certain number of counsellors of state are appointed to reside continually at his court, and about his person. These, besides the ministers of state, are an archbishop, or bishop, a palatine and two castellans; without whose consent (yet a majority of votes suffices) he can do nothing of any consequence: all which shews the prerogative to be very circumscribed. Yet is the king, not without some distinguished rights, which give no small weight to dignity. He has the disposal of all civil and ecclesiastical honours, posts, and employments (31), likewise of the crownlands (32); agreeably, however, to the laws of the kingdom (33). He confirms former privileges, and grants new (34); he can likewise confer nobility on natives and

(9) Sketch, § 20.

(r) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xii. p. 343—347.

(31) With a few exceptions, as of the waywodes of Pollock and Witepsk in Lithuania, together with the starost of Samogitia, who are chosen by the nobility in those countries. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xi. For the exceptions in the disposal of ecclesiastical employments, see § 41.

(32) What this implies, see § 52.

(33) See Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xi. where every thing remarkable concerning the persons, offices, and even employments, and the manner of bestowing them, is adduced from the laws.

(34) When not contrary to the common laws of Poland and Lithuania, or detrimental to a third person. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xii.

foreigners,

foreigners (35), and create the latter barons, counts, &c. the laws are promulgated and the courts held in his name (*s*); and when in the army, he is commander in chief (*t*). Among the king's foreign privileges is likewise this, that, at certain times, he can recommend a person to be made a cardinal, and may nominate a cardinal at Rome, as cardinal protector of the Polish nation (36).

Among the obligations which the king Obligations. is under, the principal is, to govern the kingdom by law, and maintain the rights and freedoms of the states grounded thereon. So strongly is he bound to this, that on a breach of it, the subjects are discharged from their allegiance (*x*). Farther, he must be of the Roman Catholic religion (*y*), hold the throne during his life (37), and not appoint any of his children his successor, by right of inheritance (*z*).

(35) Without, however, any share in the rights of the Polish nobility, the states having reserved this to themselves.

(*s*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xii. p. 339—341.

(*t*) Id. Lib. II. c. xi. p. 308.

(36) This must, however, be done with the knowledge and advice of the senators.

(*x*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xiii.

(*y*) Id. Lib. II. cap. iv.

(37) He is not so much as to make a proposal of resigning the government. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. ii.

(*z*) See the compact at the election of Augustus III. in the Sketch, &c.

S E C T. XXIV.

Poland, an
elective
kingdom.

This, however, was, in former times, so far customary, that even Boleſlaus III. made a partition of the provinces among his ſons, as if his own patrimonial eſtate. And the hereditary ſucceſſion continued till the extinction of the Piaſte male line, with ſome few exceptions in turbulent times (*a*). But king Caſimir the Great, the laſt of that line, intending to beſtow the crown on a foreigner, viz. Lewis, prince of Hungary, ſon to his ſiſter Elizabeth, applied to the great men for their conſent, which was neceſſary, as preferring him to the dukes of Maſovia and Sileſia, who had a collateral right. Thus Lewis became his ſucceſſor, and before his death, prevailed with the ſtates to take the oath of fidelity to Sigifmund, marquis of Brandenburg, at that time newly married to his eldeſt daughter Maria; however, on his reſuſal to comply with the conditions propoſed to him, they abandoned him, and declared Hedwig's youngeſt daughter, their queen. Jagellon duke of Lithuania, marrying her, was made king, by the title of Ladiflaus II. and the ſtates promiſed him to accept of one of his two ſons

(*a*) See Profeſſor Joachin's Treatiſe on the Origin of the Right of Election in Poland; a German work.

for king, whom they should judge most capable. Accordingly the elder, Ladislaus, succeeded him at the age of ten years, and he, dying without heirs, was succeeded by his brother Casimir III. After him the throne successively devolved to his three sons John Albert, Alexander, and Sigismund. Sigismund Augustus, son to the latter, was proclaimed king in 1579, when only ten years of age, and crowned the ensuing year, with a proviso, that he should not take on him the government till his father's death. Thus, in the time of these kings of the Jagellon family, there was no such election as at present: what the historians call an election, being only a declaration of the great men and the nobility, previous to the new king's taking on him the government. Here is a manifest mixture of hereditary right with the election, and the kings of the Jagellon line, laid such stress on it as in public instruments to stile themselves heirs of the kingdom of Poland; but after the death of Sigismund Augustus, this was suppressed by a formal law (*b*).

The death of Sigismund, the last of the reigning family, gave occasion to the first formal election of a king, which went in favour of

(*b*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. ii.

Henry of Anjou. And now a law was made that the king should not nominate a successor, nor a day of election; but that on the decease of the king the states should for ever have the right of a free election (*c*): and John Casimir proposing the election of a successor to the diet of 1661, raised such a ferment as broke out into a civil war, till the right of a free election was confirmed by a new law (*d*).

S E C T. XXV.

Interreg-
num.

As no successor is to be named during the king's life, his demise must necessarily cause an interregnum; during which the sovereignty is represented by the archbishop of Gnesna, as primate of Poland and Lithuania; and in his absence, by the bishop of Cujavia. He notifies the king's demise to the senators and states, appoints a diet, where he acts as president, and likewise in the council of state; he acquaints the states with any affairs of importance then occurring, he himself conducting the smaller; in fine, he is to omit nothing tending to the good of the commonwealth. On the death of the king, all the courts of justice

(*c*) Lengnich, Lib. II. c. ii.

(*d*) Ib. Lib. II. c. ii.

are shut ; but they are replaced by temporary courts called Capturgerichte (*e*).

S E C T. XXVI.

The first diet after the king's death is called the convocation-diet (38). The forms of proceeding are the same as in the ordinary diets, except the primate's sitting as president. Here the time and place for electing the king, and every other particular for the due performance of that important ceremony (39), and for the common safety, are settled. To the acts of this diet, which are termed Confederationes, or Capturs, all the senators, together with the marshal of the diet and the representatives, set their hands (40). In the year 1696, the convocation-diet was dissolved, of which, till then, there had not been one instance. The acts made in it, however, remained

(*e*) Lengnich, Lib. II. c. iii.

(38) The first convocation diet was held at Warsaw in 1573, on the death of Sigismund Augustus, which has been observed ever since.

(39) Concerning the persons of the candidates ; it was enacted at the convocation-diet in 1696, that all Poles, or native candidates, should be excluded ; whereas in 1733, a contrary act passed, that none but a native Pole or Piate, should be capable of being chosen. Lengnich. Hist. Polon. p. 278, 374.

(40) Likewise by some towns, who are privileged to be present at the election-diet ; though, this is but a mere formality, no regard being paid to them in the main affair.

in full force, and the time and place for the election-diet were likewise appointed (*f*).

S E C T. XXVII.

Election-
diet.

The interval between the convocation and the election-diet is not fixed, as depending on circumstances; there must, however, be time for the country diets to meet. The election-diet is held in a plain not far from Warsaw, and near Wola, a village on the Vistula. The electors are the senators, and nobility; the latter not only send representatives, but every nobleman or gentleman, if he pleases, may be present in person, which first took place at the election of king Henry (41). The crown quarter-master-general pitches the election-camp, according to the rank of the palatinates, and the place of election is surrounded with a rampart and ditches; it has likewise three gates, towards the east for Great Poland, towards the south for Lesser Poland, and the third towards the west for Lithuania. In the centre is erected for the senate a large canvas booth, with a boarded roof, by the

(*f*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. iii.

(41) Some cities, as Cracow, Posen, Vienna, Lemberg, and Warsaw, likewise send representatives to the election; a privilege which also belongs to Thorn, Elbing, and Dantzick, though, since the election of John Casimir, they have declined using it. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. iv.

Poles

Poles called Szopa. Without it the country representatives assemble, in a place called Kola, (a circle); but the nobility and gentry, are to continue in the camp, in the places assigned to each palatinate; for they have only a vote; and the senators and representatives alone are present at the preliminary deliberations. On the day of the diet's meeting, the pope's nuncio, or the archbishop of Gnesna, celebrates mass, in the cathedral of Warsaw, and a bishop preaches the sermon; after which the audience repair to the place of election, where the nobility first chuse their marshal, which, though done by a majority of votes, is often made a long-winded business. The marshal must swear that he will deliver the instrument of election to him only, who shall be chosen by the unanimous suffrages of all and every particular person. On this, the marshal, at the head of the representatives, repairs to the senate in the Szopa, and the primate then makes a motion for drawing up the compact of election, for abolishing any exorbitantia (42), and providing for the security of the camp. While these several objects are in agitation, the senate gives

(42) This word signifies all general and private grievances occasioned by violations of the law, and to be redressed previously to the election, but that is seldom the case.

audience to foreign ambassadors recommending candidates, and offering certain conditions on their behalf; for the candidates themselves must not be present, and even the natives send their agents. The primate then proclaims the candidates, that the nobility may proceed to the election. The election diet, in the year 1632, was fixed to six weeks, but this space being frequently wasted in disputes, it is sometimes lengthened till the premises being laid aside, the election day is settled. The election diet is composed of the senators and the representatives, who meet in the Kola, whilst the nobility and gentry wait on horseback in the places assigned to their respective waywodships, till the time of giving their votes. The primate harangues the states, and after naming the competitors, recommends to the assembly, to enter on the election, and concludes with singing *Veni Creator Spiritus* on his knees, in which all the assembly join, in the like posture. The senators and representatives then return to the nobility, all in their respective palatinates, and recommend to them that candidate whose interest they espouse. The primate, and the marshal of the diet alone remaining in the Kola, waiting the consequence of the election. The mar-

marshal collects the votes; and, if unanimous, the primate rides round the Kola and asks the by-standers three times, whether they have all chosen the king unanimously. This being answered by an universal shout, and no contradiction offered, he proclaims the king, which is likewise done by the marshals of Poland and Lithuania; and the crown grand-marshal repeats the proclamation at the three gates of the Kola. But instead of so tranquil and unanimous an election, the king is often proclaimed without this universal agreement, and sometimes the diet has been split into two parties, each chusing a king (43). After the election, they return to Warsaw, where *Te Deum* is sung in the cathedral; then the compact of election being drawn up by a committee of senators and representatives the agents or envoys of the absent king, assent to it, and swear to its observance. If the new king be present, he himself does so, and thereupon receives the instrument of election, which is written in Latin. If a foreigner be chosen, an embassy is sent to invite him

(43) As in 1575, when Stephen Bathori and the emperor Maximilian II. were chosen; and in 1587, in the case of Sigismund III. and archduke Maximilian; in 1697, that of Augustus II. and the prince of Conti; and in 1733, in the double election of Stanislaus and Augustus III.

into

into the kingdom, and administer the oath of election; on which the instrument of election is delivered to him. The prime continues invested with the government, till the coronation of the new king, who, in the mean time, styles himself King Elect (g).

S E C T. XXVIII.

Coronation,
and coronation-diet.

Thus the king's actual government commences only from his coronation. The day is appointed by the states at the election-diet, and is three or four months, and sometimes more, after the election. Cracow used to be the place, but the last was performed at Warsaw. The funeral of the late king must precede the coronation, and the new king be present at it. The day after, pursuant to an ancient custom, he goes on foot, to the church of St. Stanislaus in the suburbs. On the following day, having taken the usual oath, he is anointed and crowned in the palace church of the same saint, by the archbishop of Gnesen, and in his absence, commonly by the bishop of Cujavia, the senators and representatives assisting. On the third day after, the coronation-diet opens, according to the previous ordinance of the election-

(g) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. iv.

diet. Here the king confirms by charter, the rights of the kingdom of Poland, of the great duchy of Lithuania, and all their appurtenances; and in a Latin circular letter notifies his election and coronation, at the same time ordering all the courts of justice, which during the interregnum had been shut, to return to business. The primate hereupon gives an account of his administration in the interregnum, which is sometimes approved of, and sometimes undergoes a censure. When the election has been attended with contests, so as to produce disturbances, the coronation-diet is succeeded by a pacification and exorbitantia-diet (*b*).

S E C T. XXIX.

The king, at his coronation, swears a second time to observe the election compact, by the Poles called *Pacta Conventa*, and farther confirms it at the coronation-diet (*i*). This is the primary law, to which he is bound (44). The election compacts are

(*b*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. v.

(*i*) Id. p. 187, 201.

(44) The term *Pacta Conventa* dates its origin from the election of king Henry, when the first written compact was made with the king. They contain, besides a prescript for the new king, the conditions which he has taken for himself to perform for the good of the republick; and since Henry's time this has been observed by all the succeeding princes,

always

always incorporated with the Constitutiones (45), i. e. ordinances of the diets, which are laws of the kingdom, as far as relating to polity and public affairs. But the laws having left many things undecided, in these cases, custom or prescription are the guide, and equally valid with the law (*k*). Among these are the procedures at the election of a king, concerning which no ordinance has hitherto been issued (*l*).

S E C T. XXX.

Reflections
on the Polish
form of
govern-
ment.

The Poles characterize their constitution in these words, “ *Penes regem est majestas, penes senatum autoritas, penes ordinem equestrem libertas (m)*.” This has induced some writers to make three

except king Michael. The *Paſta Conventa*, from being couched originally in Latin, and before the election, have for some time paſt been made out in Polish, and not till the election is over. Lengnich, Lib. I. cap. iii.

(45) This name came in use under Sigismund Augustus, the old name was *Statuta*; since which time they have likewise been drawn up in the Polish language, whereas the *Statuta* are in Latin. The *Patres Piarum Scholarum* at Warsaw, have made a collection of both the *Statuta* and *Constitutiones*, and published them in six folio volumes, the last of which appeared in 1739, Lengnich, Lib. I. cap. ii. It is farther to be observed, that the laws made in diets assembled under the king, are called *Constitutiones*; whereas those made by the states, during an *interregnum*, are distinguished by the name of *Confederationes* and *Ordinationes*. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xii.

(*k*) Lengnich, Lib. I. c. vi. tot.

(*l*) Id. Lib. II. cap. iv § i. p. 90.

(*m*) Sketch, &c. p. 59.

states

states in Poland, and the king the first; a division, however, agreeing as little with the dignity of the king, as with the laws of the kingdom, which mention only two states, the senate and the nobility*. Long and general use, however, has introduced, both among foreigners and natives, this expression of “The King and the Republic of Poland;” and this seems best to quadrate with the present government of the kingdom, which, in reality, is neither more nor less than an aristocratical free state; for it is in the nobility that the whole authority is lodged; the senators, both spiritual and temporal, are all nobles, and must be nominated from the body of the nobility. Thus the nobility represent the whole republic; and if the king be its head, it is only with such power as the nobility have been pleased to leave him, and this they have now reduced within very narrow limits. Such is the balance between the nobility and the king: and relatively to the other inhabitants, it is still more unequal; the nobility, with the legislative power in their hands, have appropriated to themselves immunities and privileges of all

* The law has, by the extraordinary diet in 1768, made express mention of three states, the king, the senate, and the nobility.

kinds, and some privileges of very great importance, or rather exorbitant, and with a total exclusion of all who are not of their order. Honours, posts, wealth, are their portion; whilst the people groan under taxes, contributions, and indigence. With what contempt and imperiousness are the artificers treated! and as for the country people, they may be said to live in a deplorable slavery, their property, and, in some measure, their very lives, depending on the good pleasure of their lords (46). How wretched and iniquitous is a form of government, which gives up the greater part of the inhabitants, as it were, a prey to the few, without any protecting rights! All inhabitants of a state form one body; and if all its members cannot enjoy the like advantages, yet have all an equal claim to the protection of the laws, against violence and oppression. Poland seems to have no such laws for the poor, or at least, they lie

(46) Let us hear a royal author, who was well acquainted with Poland; “Je ne puis sans horreur,” says he, “rapeller ici cette loi qui n’impose qu’une amende de quinze Francs à tout gentilhomme qui aura tué un paysan. C’est à ce prix qu’on se rachete dans nêtre nation des rigueurs de la justice.”—“La Pologne est le seul pays où la populace soit comme dechüe de tous le droits de l’humanité.” La Voix Libre du Citoyen, ou Observat. sur le Gouvernem. de Pologne, p. 235.

dormant, without being made any use of (*o*). This is a very great defect in the Polish constitution; and another no less, is the singularity of their diets, which is of such a nature, that it can scarce be expected they can take any effect; yet the nobility esteem it as the seal and strength of their freedom. Every resolution of the diet must be voted unanimously, so that one opponent member annuls all the preceding resolutions (*p*). But is such an unanimity supposed to be among so great a number? the bare possibility of it would require that each member of the public councils be a person of extraordinary virtue; that all be animated with the like patriotic zeal for the public good; and that the most perfect harmony prevail among them. In Poland it is the very reverse, every one has his particular views, to which all other considerations are made to give way. Now, as in such selfishness and collusion of things, nothing can be brought to a head in the diet, anarchy must necessarily be the consequence, and this verifies what that great prince, Stephen Bathori, used to say even in his time that “ Poland was entirely governed by chance (47).”

(*o*) See the Present State of Europe, ch. xvii. p. 105.

(*p*) See above, § xvii.

(47) *Vestra Poloni Respublica, non ordine, quo caretis, non regimine, quod contemnitis, sed solo fato regitur.*

Such

Such are the wretched consequences of a single person's being invested with a right of opposition, so as to put a stop to public proceedings, and annul what has passed. It is amazing that such an abuse should ever have got footing, and obtained even the sanction of the laws. The only assignable cause seems to be, that the right exercised by an individual, is accounted as general, and every one is fond of reserving it for himself, to make use of it at his own time.

S E C T. XXX.

The king's
title.

The first sovereigns of Poland were called only princes or dukes, and not kings. Boleslaus I. is said to have first assumed the title of king in the year 1024 (48), which his immediate successors, till Boleslaus II.

Voyez M. de Real Science du Governem. Part I. Tom. II. p. 596. King Stanislaus says the very same thing: "A ne juger de nos assemblés publiques, que par le tumulte & la confusion qui y regnent, on droit que c'est le hasard seul qui gouverne nôtre etat. La Voix Libre du Citoyen, p. 151.

(48) According to several Polish historians, as Michovia, Dugloss, Cromer, and others, Boleslaus I. received the title of king from the emperor Otho III. in the year 1000; but the old German historians make no mention of it. Professor Joachim's Dissertation on the Origin of Elective Right in the Kingdom of Poland. This appears the greater error, as Otho Freisingen, of Wippo, and other German writers, expressly say, that Boleslaus I. first assumed the title of king in 1024, or 1025. Vid. Struvii Corp. Hist. Germ. Tom. I. p. 336. not. 23.

like-

likewise bore; but the following, from Ladislaus I. whose reign began in 1081, dropped that title for above the space of 200 years (49). It was revived by Premislaus duke of Great Poland, who in 1295, caused himself to be anointed and crowned king at Gnesna. Wenceslaus king of Bohemia, his successor, likewise bore the title of king of Poland, but after his death in 1305, it was again discontinued. At length Ladislaus Locticus having again united all Poland under his sceptre, re-assumed the title of king, on being crowned at Cracow

(49) The discontinuance of the title of king in Poland, was probably owing to that king's being excommunicated by pope Gregory VII. for the murder of Stanislaus bishop of Cracow, which excommunication likewise included Poland itself, and deprived, not only the king, but the kingdom of its royalty; and the bishops received express orders, neither to crown or anoint a king of Poland, without the knowledge and permission of the see of Rome. "Regem Boleslaum & Regnum Poloniæ omni honore dignitate et excellentia Regali privavit."——Inhibens,—Gnesnensi Archiepiscopo et suis Coëpiscopis, ne aliquam cujuscunque gradus, præminentia et status personam in Poloniæ Regem coronare & inungere audeant, sede Apostolica inconsulta." Dugloss. Hist. Polon. Lib. III. p. 295. This Baronius in Annal. Eccles. Tom. XI. ad Ann. 1709. in XL. et XLI. alleges from that historian, and adds, that the pope's bull no longer subsisting was nothing strange, many other records of Pope Gregory VII. being wanting. Concerning Ladislaus I. brother and successor to king Boleslaus II. Duglossus, Lib. IV. p. 301. imputes his not using the title of king, to his being neither anointed nor crowned as his predecessors, the bishops having, in obedience to the pope's prohibition, refused to perform the ceremony; and the same reason, perhaps, might have weighed with the succeeding kings.

in 1320, and his successors have kept it up ever since (g).

But the title has received several additions. Ladislaus Jagellon stiled himself king of Poland and sovereign prince of Lithuania, which last title his son Casimir III. changed to that of great duke. Prussia, Livonia, and other provinces being reduced under the crown of Poland, they were also added to the king's title; so that Sigismund Augustus was stiled king of Poland, great duke of Lithuania, Russia, Prussia, Mazovia, Samogitia, Kiow, Volhinia, Podlachia, and Livonia. To these Ladislaus IV. added Podolia, Severien, Czernichow, and Smolensko, the three last countries having been ceded to him by the Russians; but being given back to Russia at the peace in 1686; it was at the same time stipulated that the king of Poland should forbear those titles when writing to the Czar; on other occasions, they are used to this day.

The present title is king of Poland, great duke of Lithuania, Russia, Prussia, Masovia, Samogitia, Kiow, Volhinia, Podlachia, Livonia, Smolensko, Severien, and Czernichow. If the kings had any foreign dominions, they likewise bore the titles of

(g) Lengnich, Lib. II. c. ii.

them,

them, as Wenceslaus stiled himself king of Bohemia and Poland; Lewis, of Hungary and Poland; Ladislaus III. of Poland and Hungary. King Henry added to his, Duke of Anjou; and king Stephen, prince of Transylvania. Sigismund III. Ladislaus IV. and John Casimir, stiled themselves kings of Sweden; and the two late Saxon kings bore the title of their hereditary dominions (*r*).

John Casimir having expelled the Soci-nians out of Poland, pope Alexander VII. conferred on him the title of Rex Orthodoxus (*s*), but neither he nor his successors ever thought fit to use it.

S E C T. XXXII.

Concerning the origin of the arms of Poland nothing can be said with any certainty (*50*). The first credible account is that king Premislaus in the year 1296, had an eagle cut on his seal, with the inscription: “Reddidit ipse suis victricia signa
“Polonis,” alluding to the title of king which he had revived (*t*). The present

(*r*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. iv. p. 209—213.

(*s*) Becman, Synt. Dignit. Illustr. Dissert. II. c. xi. § xi. p. 159.

(*50*) Very singular opinions are to be found about it in Becman, Synt. Dignit. VII. cap. iii. § iv. p. 179, and Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. ix. p. 228.

(*t*) Duglofs, Lib. VIII.

arms are quarterly, the first and fourth Mars, an eagle crowned, Luna, for Poland; and the second and third a horseman, armed Luna; with a naked sword and shield, Jupiter; on which is a patriarchal cross, Sol, on a wild-horse, Luna, shoes, Sol, and caparisons, Jupiter; for Lithuania. In the middle shield are the king's family arms.

S E C T. XXXIII.

Of the
queen.

The laws of Poland have imposed several obligations on the person of the queen. She must be a Roman Catholic, in which case she is crowned jointly with the king; she is to have only Polish officers and servants, very few excepted; she is not to purchase estates, nor hold any of the crown lands; and, especially she is not to meddle in state affairs. Accordingly, at the election of an unmarried king, he is to promise not to marry without the consent of the senate. The queen has her own household, marshal, chancellor, and other officers, but no particular revenues, except 2000 ducats per ann. out of the Craçow salt-works. On the king's demise, her dowry is paid out of the crown-lands (*u*).

(*u*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xvi. tot.

S E C T. XXXIV.

The king's sons have no right to the crown, yet may stand candidates. They are not to be employed in public affairs but by consent of the states. Their personal litigations are cognizable only before the king and the senate. They are stiled Most Illustrious, and bear the arms of Poland and Lithuania (x).

Of the royal children.

S E C T. XXXV.

The capital of the kingdom of Poland is Cracow, which was likewise the king's residence. Sigismund Augustus, and Stephen lived much at Warsaw, and Sigismund III. built a palace there for his constant residence; in which he was imitated by his successors. This removal is thought to have been owing to Cracow's being situated at one end of the kingdom, and thus at too great a distance from Lithuania and Prussia; and likewise to a resolution passed a little time before Sigismund Augustus's death for holding the diets at Warsaw (y).

Capital;
Royal residence.

(u) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xvi. tot.

(x) Id. Lib. II. cap. xvii. tot.

(y) Ibid. Lib. II. c. viii. p. 216, 217.

S E C T. XXXVI.

The crown,
and court
great offi-
cers in Po-
land and Li-
thuania.

Besides the ministers of state (z) who fill the principal employments, and are senators; there are several other great officers, deriving their title from the kingdom and the great dutchy, but are not senators. These are,

1. The crown great secretary of Poland.
The great secretary of Lithuania.
2. The crown referendaries of Poland.
The referendaries of Lithuania (51).
3. The crown court treasurer of Poland.
The court treasurer of Lithuania.
4. The crown great chamberlain of Poland.
The great chamberlain of Lithuania (52).
5. The crown great standard-bearer of Poland.

The great standard-bearer of Lithuania.

(z) See above, Sect. XVI.

(51) Poland has two referendaries, and Lithuania likewise two, of whom one is always an ecclesiastick. Their original business was to receive petitions, and make a report of them to the chancellor; but these employments have long since been discontinued, and at present they are presidents of certain courts called Referendariatus, and have likewise a seat and a vote in the assessorial courts. Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. x.

(52) In Latin he is called Succamerarius, though he has no superior. These great chamberlains are to take care of, and have an eye to the king's person; so that count Tenczin was in extreme perplexity when king Henry secretly withdrew out of Poland in 1574, lest he should be called to account for negligence. Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. x.

6. The crown court standard-bearer of Poland.
The court standard-bearer of Lithuania.
7. The crown sword-bearer of Poland.
The sword-bearer of Lithuania.
8. The crown master of the horse of Poland.
The master of the horse of Lithuania.
9. The crown equerry of Poland.
The equerry of Lithuania.
10. The crown first master-cook of Poland.
The first master-cook of Lithuania.
11. The crown first cup-bearer of Poland.
The first cup-bearer of Lithuania.
12. The crown carver of Poland.
The carver of Lithuania.
13. The crown great butler of Poland.
The great butler of Lithuania.
14. The crown under-butler of Poland.
The under-butler of Lithuania.
15. The crown sub-cup-bearer of Poland.
The sub-cup-bearer of Lithuania.
16. The crown great huntsman of Poland.
The great huntsman of Lithuania.
17. The crown court huntsman of Poland.
The court huntsman of Lithuania.
18. The crown chancery director of Poland.
The chancery director of Lithuania (53).

(53) They are called in Latin Regentes Cancellariæ. There are two in Poland, and two in Lithuania, according to the number of chanceries. Their office, among other things, is,

19. The crown chancery recorder of Poland.
The chancery recorder of Lithuania (54).
20. The crown great treasury recorder of Poland.
The treasury recorder of Lithuania (55).
21. The crown warden of Poland.
The treasury warden of Lithuania.
22. The crown instigator of Poland (56).
The instigator of Lithuania (a).

S E C T. XXXVII.

Great military officers in Poland and Lithuania.

The great military officers of the kingdom of Poland and the great dutchy of Lithuania are :

1. The crown field-marshal of Poland.
The field-marshal of Lithuania.
2. The crown lieutenant-general of Poland.
The lieutenant-general of Lithuania (57).

to examine writings of any importance that are made out in chancery, whether they are agreeable to the law, and properly worded. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. x.

(54) These are four in number, one to each chancery. They are called in Latin *Metricantes*, from *Metrica*, i. e. *Matricula*, and the books in which they enter the patents, grants, and other public instruments made out in the chanceries. Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. viii.

(55) Of these Poland has two, and Lithuania three.

(56) i. e. fiscal, to whose cognizance belong public complaints, particularly against state-crimes, and others of a very heinous or important nature.

(a) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. x.

(57) When the state is without both a field-marshal and a lieutenant-general, the king, till those employments are filled up, appoints an intermediate commander in chief, termed *Regimentarius*. Lengnich, Lib. III. c. x.

3. The

3. The crown field-notary of Poland.
The field-notary of Lithuania.
4. The crown great major of Poland.
The great major of Lithuania.
5. The crown great master of the ordnance
of Poland.
The great master of the ordnance of Li-
thuania.
6. The crown general quarter-master of Po-
land.
The general quarter-master of Lithua-
nia (*b*).

S E C T. XXXVIII.

Next to the great employments of the <sup>Land em-
ployments.</sup> crown and kingdom come several provin-
cial officers, taking their title from some
captainships, as the upper starost of Great
Poland, and the other of Lesser Poland.
The treasurer and sword-bearer of Prussia
likewise rank among the great provincial
officers (*c*).

S E C T. XXXIX.

The palatinates and free countries have <sup>Land digni-
taries.</sup> farther, a class of officers stiled Dignitarii
Terrarum, provincial dignitaries. These
are the provincial receiver, the provincial

(*b*) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. x.

(*c*) Id. Ibid. cap. xi.

standard-bearer, the provincial steward, the provincial cup-bearer, the provincial huntsman, the provincial sword-bearers, the provincial treasurers (58), the director of the circle (59). In Lithuania some particular districts have likewise their marshal, and other dignitaries (*d*).

Among the provincial dignitaries are likewise the starostes (60), or gentlemen, on whom the king has conferred a mansion-house and land during life; and some with a jurisdiction annexed to it; while others have only the bare produce of the land (*e*).

S E C T. XL.

Orders of
knight-
hood.

Lastly, Poland has two temporal orders of knighthood; the first is that of the White Eagle, instituted by king Augustus II. in 1705. The ensign of the order is an Eagle, Luna, crowned, with expanded wings, at a blue watered ribbon passing from the left shoulder under the right arm. The

(58) All these, provincial receivers excepted, are bare titles.

(59) In Latin termed *Tribuni*, their business is to take care of the public safety, whilst the nobility are in the field.

(*d*) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. xii.

(60) The Latin name is *Capitanius*, the Polish word signifies aged, as anciently this dignity was conferred only on the aged. Lengnich, Lib. II. c. xi.

(*e*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xi. and Lib. III. cap. xii.

knights

knights wear on the left breast an octangular star embroidered in gold, with a silver cross in the centre, and this inscription: "Pro Fide, Rege, et Lege;" but that of the king as sovereign of the order, has these words; "Pro Fide, Lege, et Grege (*f*)."

The second is that of St. Stanislaus, in honour of whom his late majesty Stanislaus Augustus instituted it on the 8th of May 1765 (*g*).

S E C T. XLI.

Poland was converted to Christianity in the tenth century, but Lithuania not till towards the close of the fourteenth. At the head of the Polish church are two archbishops and fifteen bishops. The dignity of their office, their learning, of which, at first, they alone had any share, and still more the large estates which they had got into their hands, gave them, in the very infancy of Christianity, a powerful influence on state affairs; so that they became superior to the temporal grandees (61), and were the first senators of the kingdom. The

Ecclesiastical state of Poland.

(*f*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. viii.

(*g*) Merc. Hist. & Polit. Avril, p. 469, & Juin, p. 698.

(61) According to Lubienſky, they alone composed the king's council; but this is more than can be proved; for historians, when speaking of public consultations, always use the expression Prælati et Barones, Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. v.

arch-

archbishops are those of Gnesna and Lemberg: the bishops sees are Cracow, Cujavia, Posen, Vilna, Ploczko, Ermland, Luck, Premislau, Samogitia, Culm, Chelm, Kiow, Caminieci, Livonia, Smolensko. The archbishop of Gnesna is the principal ecclesiastick, and primate of Poland and Lithuania; which title the council of Constance granted him in 1417; so that both the archbishop of Lemberg and all the bishops are his suffragans, Ermland excepted, as immediately subject to the pope. At first he confirmed the new-made bishops, but this privilege the see of Rome afterwards thought fit to appropriate to itself. In the year 1515, pope Leo X. conferred on him the dignity of hereditary nuncio of the see of Rome, pursuant to which, in the absence of the pope's nuncio in ordinary, he acts as such. He is likewise stiled First Prince, and, in an Interregnum, is regent of the kingdom till the coronation, which he performs. He takes place of all senators, and may make representations to the king on his doing any thing against the laws. He resides at Lowicz, which Conrad, duke of Mazovia, gave to the church of Gnesna about the year 1240. He has his marshal, who is a castellan of the second order, his chancellor, and other officers.

cers (*b*). Next to the primate is the bishop of Cracow, who is stiled duke of Severien; and, as such, has the temporal jurisdiction in that province (*i*). Then follows the bishop of Cujavia, who, in an interregnum, supplies the absence of the primate, in all his several functions (*k*). The bishops of Posen and Vilna take precedence alternately from one diet to another, which is also observed by those of Ermland and Luck; the former stiles himself Prince of the Holy Roman Empire, which title, however, the records of the kingdom do not give him (*l*).

The lower clergy in Poland and Lithuania are very numerous, those countries containing no less than thirty-one abbeys, five hundred and fifty-six convents of men, and ninety nunneries, forty-nine colleges of Jesuits, and fifteen of the fathers Piarum Scholarum (*m*). The king nominates the archbishops and bishops, Ermland excepted, to the chapter of which, he, however, proposes four candidates, recommending the person whom he could wish chosen.

(*b*) Lengnich, Lib. III. c. v.

(*i*) Id. Ibid. § xxxi.—xxxvi. p. 88—93.

(*k*) Ibid. Lib. II. cap. iii. § i. p. 65, et cap. v. § ix. p.

185.

(*l*) Ibid. Lib. III. cap. v. § xl—lviii. p. 93—113.

(*m*) Sketch, &c.

The king had anciently the disposal of all the abbeys and deaneries; but the monks, having, originally, had a right of election, solicited the recovery of that privilege under king Michael; and the controversy was referred to the pope's decision, who terminated it by an agreement that the king was still to have the nomination of eleven abbeys and one deanery, but the monks to elect to all the others (*n*). The revenues and possessions of the whole body of the clergy are very large, above two-thirds of all the lands in the kingdom being in their hands (62).

S E C T. XLII.

Pope's
power in
Poland.

Poland had, from the time of Casimir I. (*o*), remitted a yearly donation or tribute to Rome; and, from thence, some would make Poland to have been a fief of the papacy; but that remittance has long been

(*n*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xi.

(62) King Stanislaus gives them a sharp lecture for their pride, state, and luxury; and asserts, that as the church lands were a part of the lands of the state, the latter has a right to abolish the flagrant abuses of them, and to reduce the clergy to a right use of their opulence. He therefore advises and exhorts them voluntarily to sacrifice their superfluities to the public good, as this would raise a very considerable sum, by which a part of the army might be maintained, and the lower class of people, who almost alone bear the burden of imposts, be greatly eased. *La Voix Libre du Citoyen*, p. 44, 46, &c.

(*o*) See above, Sect. X.

discontinued (*p*). On the other hand, the pope, even to this day, confirms all new-made bishops and abbots; and before this confirmation the former cannot so much as take their seats in the senate, much less exercise their episcopal functions (*q*). His nuncios have a particular court called the Nunciature, for ecclesiastical affairs; among which are reckoned those relating to marriage. It is likewise loudly complained of that they extend their jurisdiction too far, comprehending in it the cognizance of many temporal matters (*r*). At the rising of the coronation-diet, the new king sends an ambassador to the pope in testimony of his obedience. This being an old custom, is considered by the see of Rome as a duty: and instances are not wanting that the pope has been highly offended at any long delay of this embassy, and kings have thought it adviseable to pacify him by specious excuses (*s*).

S E C T. XLIII.

Though popery be the established religion in Poland *, there are several other Tolerated religions.

(*p*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xiv.

(*q*) Id. Lib. II. cap. xi.

(*r*) Id. Lib. III. c. v.

(*s*) Id. Lib. II. cap. v.

* By a law made in the extraordinary diet of 1768, a Roman Catholic changing his religion is to be banished the kingdom.

sects,

sects, to which the laws have granted free exercise of worship, as the Greek church; (but of these some being united with that of Rome, are called Unitarians (63), while others are distinguished by the name of Disunitarians;) Armenians (64); Protestants, both Calvinists and Lutherans, who, under king Sigismund Augustus, a moderate prince, obtained a free exercise of their religion, together with some necessary privileges. In the same reign, the Socinians, in Poland called Arians, flocked into the kingdom: and these several sects so increased, that in the interregnum following the decease of Sigismund Augustus they balanced at least the Catholics in the senate; but, among the nobles and gentry, made no inconsiderable majority. This induced the catholic and uncatholic states in the convocation-diet of 1573, to enter into a covenant for themselves and their descendants, reciprocally to preserve peace and harmony, not molesting or persecuting any person for his religion. This covenant was called the Religious Peace, and inserted in the general confederation, which was drawn

(63) They have three archbishops, Kiow, Polocz, and Smolensko, and six bishops, Wlodzimir, Pinsk, Chelm, Luck, Premislaus, and Lemberg.

(64) These have a patriarch at Lemberg, but these likewise are now united with the church of Rome.

up in the name of the senators temporal and spiritual, the whole nobility and all the states. It was then that the name of Dissidents was first heard of; for the states being of different religions, they termed themselves collectively *Dissidentes de Religionibus*. This religious peace was afterwards sworn to by king Henry, to which his successors have likewise conformed. The confederation of 1573 was likewise confirmed as a religious compact, in the interregnum after the death of king Stephen; and till then the name of Dissidents had included both catholics and others; but in the confederations of the following interregnum, the former meaning of this word was altered, and confined to those who are non-catholics, and at length only to the Greeks, Lutherans, and reformed (*t*). The Socinians, indeed, believed that they were of the number of the Dissidents; and they had in effect, hitherto enjoyed all their rights and indulgences; but under Ladislaus IV. a design was formed to exclude them from all places of honour and public employments; and in the convocation-diet in 1648, it was resolved that for the future none should be accounted Dis-

(*t*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xiv.

fidents, but such only as believed the Trinity; and that the Socinians were not of that number. At last, in the diet of 1658, Socinianism was made death, yet allowing three years, though afterwards shortened to two, to dispose of their effects, and quit the country; which all who would not turn Roman Catholics saw themselves obliged to do. The Quakers, Mennonists, and Anabaptists, were afterwards included with the Socinians, and under the like sentence. The Dissidents formerly enjoyed the same rights as the Catholics, were capable of being temporal senators, representatives, and holding all other public employments; but by the confederation of 1733, they were totally deprived of all these privileges, and declared guilty of high treason, in case they applied to any foreign powers for their mediation. This was confirmed by the constitution of 1736, after very severe limitations had been laid on the Dissidents in exercising their religion, and ever since strictly continued on all occasions to their extreme oppression (*x*). But in the diet of 1768, at the strenuous intercession of the empress of Russia, the king of Prussia, and other Protestant powers, the Dissidents have been relieved from their

(*x*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. c. xiv.

oppressions, enjoy a free exercise of their religion, and are capable of holding any temporal honours and employments.

S E C T. XLIV.

The Poles have no less genius than in-^{Universities,}clination for the sciences; but in the more ancient times they had no opportunity for mental improvements, which, however, have been carried on with very promising success since the establishment of schools and universities. Of the latter, Poland has three; the most ancient and principal of which is that of Cracow, founded by king Casimir in 1361, and completed by Ladislaus Jagellon in 1400. The bishop of Cracow is always chancellor, and at his induction, the preservation of its privileges are earnestly recommended to him (*y*). The second university is that of Vilna, formerly a Jesuits college, till made a university by pope Gregory XIII. in the year 1579; on which account it is under the inspection of the Jesuits (*z*). The third, or that of Zamoscia, so called from its founder, the celebrated crown-chancellor and field-marshal John Zamoyscy (*a*), at present is very little talked of.

(*y*) Vid. Cellar. p. 142. Lengnich, Lib. III. c. v. p. 92.

(*z*) Vid. Cellar, p. 277.

(*a*) Id. p. 343.

S E C T. XLV.

State of the
sciences in
Poland.

Though the sciences have been greatly promoted, and diffused by these universities, yet has not Poland produced so many persons eminent for literature as other nations. One cause of this may be, that even they, who were really learned, wrote little or nothing; and when they had written any thing they could not publish, for want of printing houses, so that the names of many literati have died with them (*b*). The sixteenth, and the first half of the seventeenth century, however, has produced the most writers, and particularly many historians, who, among other recommendations, are greatly admired for the beauty of their Latin (*c*). The like praise is due to several of their poets. One would be inclined to think that as the constitution of the state renders the talent of speaking in public so necessary, the Poles should excel in elocution; but one of the greatest of their countrymen pronounces them to be very indifferent orators (*65*). There is, however, room to

(*b*) Cromer, Lib. I. p. 15.

(*c*) Discourse on Struven's Introduction to the History of the Empire, p. 48. (a German work.)

(*65*) Nos harangues dans les Assemblées publiques—me font que des ouvrages sans genie, de misérables puérilités de

expect that they will amend their philology, as they now translate the old Greek and Latin writers into their language (66). All the sciences, in general, are likewise cultivated with much greater accuracy and assiduity than formerly. Philosophy, Mathematics, the history and polity of the country, the Greek and Latin philology, together with the Belles Lettres, are, according to the latest accounts, the objects which chiefly employ the Polish literati. Many of the great, to promote the publication of learned and useful works, defray the charges of the presses. The learned at Warsaw have the advantage of the Zalusky library (67), which is both very numerous and valuable. Under the auspices of these times, so favourable to the Polish muses, literature will soon put on another appearance than what it had seen in the last century.

college, où l'on remarque plus de vain elocution que de bon sens. Rien ne va au grand et au solide; nul choix, nul ordre, nulle simplicité: on ne voit dans ces discours que figures entassées et puiffées dans d'insipides recueils, et l'on n'y traite rien moins que le sujet qui oblige à les faire.—La Voix Libre du Citoyen, p. 132.

(66) Among others, the Orations of Demosthenes have been translated into the Polish language by Mr. Nagarezewsky. Janetzky, Excerpt. Polon. Litterat. Vol. I. p. 10.

(67) To this Mr. Janotzky has dedicated the first part of his Excerpt. Polon. Litterat. which, perhaps, is the first dedication of this kind.

S E C T. XLVI.

Laws.

In the times of remote antiquity, the Poles, like the other northern nations, had no written laws ; their disputes were terminated by natural equity, and sometimes by arms, or a single combat (*d*). It was not till after the establishment of Christianity that laws were couched in writing ; but they being very defectuous, the Magdeburg law became used in Poland ; Boleslaus V. duke of Great Poland having, in 1257, permitted the city of Cracow to follow it ; which permission was afterwards granted to other cities. King Casimir the Great made considerable additions to the old Polish laws, on which account he is esteemed the principal legislator of Poland. The legislative power becoming common to the states and the king, under Casimir III. the laws were made at the diets, and first termed Statuta, afterwards Constitutiones (*e*). These constitute both public and private right (*f*), and Poland has no other particular law-book.

(*d*) Vid. Franc. Martini Dissert. de Scopo Reip. Polon. cap. vii. p. 115, 116. ibique allegati auctores.

(*e*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. c. xiii.

(*f*) Id. Lib. I. cap. ii.

Lithuania has likewise its own Constitutions, containing its public and private right, and of which many editions have been published (68).

In Prussia, the towns and the nobility have a different law, the former called Culm-law, the latter distinguished by the title of the Country Right of the Prussian nobility (69).

The canon-law, together with the decrees of the council of Trent, have likewise been introduced into Poland; and the former both in temporal and spiritual concerns (g). The Roman-law is in great consideration; but not with the full force of a law, as some would maintain (b).

S E C T. XLVII.

King Casimir the Great made several ordinances relating to the courts of justice; abolished the appeals from the towns where the Magdeburg law obtained, to the court of Magdeburg; erecting in lieu at Cracow, a supreme court for the Magdeburg law. This, however, has lately been suppressed,

(68) Under the title of Statutum Lithuanum. The several editions may be seen in Baderi Biblioth. Jur. Sel. c. vi.

(69) Concerning the alterations in the Prussian laws, and its several editions, see Lengnich, Jus Publ. Pruss. Pol. § 114, &c.

(g) Marinus, cap. vii. p. 137.

(b) Ibid. p. 138—142.

on the institution of several other upper-courts (*i*). Among the Polish lower courts, the principal are :

1. The country courts, which are held in every circle of the waywodships for trying disputes between noblemen concerning the purchase of their effects, or other transactions relating to their lands.
2. The starostey courts, held by those starostes who are invested with juridical power, to take cognizance of penal causes and personal complaints among the nobility.
3. The country receivers courts for determining disputes among the land-holders about the bounds of their lands.
4. The town-courts held by the magistracies of the towns. Here the Magdeburg law is the rule of proceeding, unless the town has its own particular laws.
5. The justices court, for trying causes among the peasants and other mean people. These courts likewise proceed by the Magdeburg-law.
6. The deputy waywode courts, before which are brought all civil processes of the Jews, and causes relating to the police.
7. Mixed courts, generally held by the starostes and the magistracy of the town, when a nobleman is apprehended for a crime newly committed, the privilege of

(*i*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xiii.

nobility not allowing the magistrates to try him at their own bar. 8. The bishop's courts, which each bishop holds in his diocese, but with appeal to that of the nuncio (*k*).

There are likewise several classes of upper courts, as 1. The chancery or assessorial courts, which are two, one for Poland, and the other for Lithuania. The first name they owe to the chancellor's being president in them, and the latter to the referendaries and masters in chancery being assessors (*l*). To these courts, appeals lie from the town-courts.

2. The relation-court, which is held in the king's presence, and the senators, with the ministers of state, are assessors. A referendary proclaims the causes, the counsellors speak pro and con, and the chancellor pronounces sentence according to the majority of suffrages. The Courland and Livonian affairs come under the cognizance of this court. Sometimes appeals are brought before it from the assessorial courts, and sometimes the king himself calls up causes from its determination. 3. The diet-court, which is held during the diet, by the king and the senate, together with

(*k*) Sketch, &c.

(*l*) Lengnich, Lib. III. cap. viii. § xlii. p. 189.

eighteen representatives. It tries crimes against the state, and other criminal causes; and pronounces sentence according to majority of votes. 4. The upper country courts, or tribunals instituted by king Stephen for the kingdom of Poland and the Great Duchy of Lithuania. These determine, without appeal, all processes of the nobility, both in civil and penal cases. The Polish upper country courts were at first held annually at Petricow for Great Poland, and afterwards at Lublin for Little Poland, by the same judges, who were partly spiritual and partly temporal; and every year chosen by the diocese, the waywodships, and free countries. The president of the spiritual, is always the elder of the two prebendaries deputed by the diocese of Gnesna; the temporal choose a marshal, who is generally a senator, with the title of marshal of the tribunal.

The upper country court for Lithuania, of which no ecclesiastic can be a member, meets annually at Vilna; and, after sitting twenty-two weeks, removes to Novogrodec or Minsk, for the same space of time, sitting every other year alternately at these two cities. 5. The treasury court, which is held annually for six weeks at Radom in Poland, and consists of some senators appointed by the
the

the king, and the representatives of the nobility, one from each waywodship. Both the former and latter hold their office two years. The business of this court is to levy the arrears of taxes, to punish malversations, and to pay the army out of the monies collected. Accordingly the muster rolls are laid before it, and sworn to. It examines the complaints of the inhabitants against the troops, and of soldiers against the officers, judging without appeal.

Lithuania has no particular treasury-court; but it is held annually by the upper country court. 6. The marshal's court takes cognizance, not only of all persons belonging to the court, but likewise of all crimes and trespasses committed in the king's court, or within the distance of three miles. It likewise has the inspection of the police, and sits in the king's palace *de die in diem*. 7. The referendary court, so called from being held by the referendaries; these determine differences between the possessors of the crown lands, and the farmers of them (*m*). 8. The courts martial are entirely dependant on the field-marshal's,

(*m*) Concerning all these upper courts, see Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xiii.

who

who appoints the members, and causes the sentences to be put in execution (*n*).

Lastly, 9. The Captur-court (70), is not to be omitted, though held only during an interregnum, for the public safety. Accordingly its jurisdiction is confined to criminal cases, as homicide, setting fire to any thing, robbery, &c. (*o*).

S E C T. XLVIII.

Forces.

Poland formerly had no standing army; every one, in time of war, turned soldier; and nobility and gentry, burghers and peasants, appeared in the field. Casimir the Great, and Ladislaus Jagellon first raised soldiers, who were chiefly foreigners; and these, on a peace, were cashiered. The first standing body of troops was seen under king Sigismund Augustus, and these were called Quartans, from a quarter of the crown lands being, in 1562, assigned for their support; they were cantoned on the frontiers of Russia and Podolia, to defend those countries against the inroads

(*n*) Sketch, &c. p. 163.

(70) The word Captur, in Polish, properly signifies a cap, or hood, but figuratively an alliance formed by the states of the kingdom during an interregnum, for maintaining the public tranquillity. These alliances, perhaps, have given name to the court instituted for the like purposes. See Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. iii.

(*o*) Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. iii.

of the Tartars. The Quartans (71) not being sufficient, for such a service, more troops, both horse and foot, were raised; and the states provided for their maintenance. But the Polish infantry being very bad, Germans and Hungarians were raised; and the two armies, of Poland and Lithuania, had their origin. Since the time of king Casimir the Great, the great men and nobility have likewise taken upon themselves to levy troops and support them (*p*); and particularly this is their custom during an interregnum. In the year 1716, the two armies were new-modelled, and now consist of national and foreign troops; the former are all cavalry, clothed and armed in the Polish manner; the latter in the German, or foreign mode. Some of the horse are called hussars, and these are generally Polish gentlemen, and term themselves Towarezyz. They were formerly armed cap-a-pee, and at present as cuirassiers. Others are distinguished by the name of Pantzers; and though their arms are something lighter, they wear cuirasses, to which indeed their names allude; to these must

(71) Though the Quartans are mentioned in all the election-compacts of the kings, yet no such word is found in the list of the army, as regulated in the year 1716. Lengnich, Lib. IV. c. viii.

(*p*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. viii.

be added some squadrons of Tartars (72) and Cossacks, who are quite light troops. The foreign troops consist of dragoons and infantry, and are divided into regiments; and the national into pulks or brigades (9). The Polish crown-army consists of four pulks of national troops.

First pulk, called by the king's name.

Four troops of hussars, the body-companies of 100, the others of 55 men,	—	—	265
Twenty troops of pantzers or cuirassiers, a body-troop of 100, the others of 50 men,	—	—	1050
Four squadrons of Tartars and Cossacks, of 125 men, with an independent troop of 50,	—		<u>550</u>
			1865

Second pulk, which bears the name of the prince-royal.

Four troops of hussars, a body-troop of 80, the three others of 55 men,			245
Nineteen troops of pantzers, a body-troop of 80, the others of 50 men,			<u>980</u>
			1225

(72) These are generally called Ulans, probably from colonel Ulanetzky, who first brought them into the Polish service, under king Sigismund Augustus. Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. viii.

(9) Lengnich, Id. Ibid.

Third

Third pulk, or the crown field-marshal's.	
Four troops of huffars, as above.	245
Nineteen troops of pantzers or cuirassiers	980
Two squad. of Tartars of 125 men,	250
	<u>1475</u>

Fourth pulk, or the sub-field-marshal's.	
Four troops of huffars, as above.	245
Nineteen troops of cuirassiers	980
Two squad. of Tartars of 100 men,	200
	<u>1425</u>
Total	<u>5990</u>

The foreign troops are :

Seven regiments of dragoons, the first called the dragoon guards of 1000, and the others of 500 men.	4000
Seven regiments of foot, the first called the body guard, of 3000 men, the two next of 1000, one of 900, two of 850, and one of 536 men.	8136
Three companies of Hungarians or Janissaries, as a life-guard for the crown-great-marshal, the crown-field-marshal, and the sub-field-marshal ; the two former of 150, the last of 100.	400
Total	<u>12536</u>

Total of the crown army 18526

The

The Lithuanian army consists in national troops of

Six troops of hussars, the first as the body troop of 100, the three following of 70, and the two last of 45 men,	—	—	400
Twenty-seven troops of pantzers, whom the Lithuanians call Petyhoris, divided into four pulks,			1240
Twenty troops of Tartars and Cossacks (Letkies)	—	—	<u>700</u>
			2340

Foreign Troops.

Four regiments of dragoons, the first as the body guard of 600, the others of 300 men,	—		1500
Three regiments of foot, the first as the body guard of 100, the others of 425 men,	—	—	1850
One company of artillery,	—		150
Four companies of Janissaries	—		<u>400</u>
			3900

Total of the Lithuanian army (*r*). 6240

By these lists the two armies should consist of 24766 men; but in the fund assigned for the support of these troops, rations and allowances being reckoned only

(*r*) Sketch, &c. p. 172.

for rank and file ; a great number of these must be subtracted to make up the deficiencies in the pay of the officers ; and accordingly the deduction from the real numbers amounts to one half, consequently the two armies make but about 12,000 men (s).

S E C T. XLIX.

This is the republic's ordinary force ; ^{Raising of the nobility.} but on urgent necessity, the king, with consent of the states, may raise the whole nobility, which the Poles call *Pospolite Ruszenie*, i. e. a general campaign. All the nobility and gentry, (a few excepted on account of their employment) and all who hold crown lands, and burghers with freeholds, are bound to appear in the field on horseback. The towns furnish waggons and other implements ; the nobility and gentry of every waywodship repair to the rendezvous, headed by their waywode. They are not, however, obliged to stay there above a fortnight, and, if not led against the enemy by that time, they may return home. The nobility likewise are not to be led beyond the frontiers against their inclination ; their only commander in

(s) From the Polish Monitor, Number IV.

chief being the king, except in an interregnum, when they are under the crown field-marshal. The last Pospolites, or raising of the nobility, were in the years 1621, and 1672 (*t*). Such an expedition would at present be of little service. The art of war being totally changed; such a confused, raw multitude, without discipline and obedience to the officers, could never do any thing against European regulars. The short time that the nobility are obliged to keep the field, the difficulty of subsisting such a prodigious number of men and horses, and the desolation of the country attending such an encampment, with other inconveniencies, speak loudly against a Pospolite. According to the proposal of a certain great prince, it would be much better to dispense the nobility from this incumbrance, and tax the rich to pay for the support of a greater number of regular troops (73). But it is scarce to be hoped

(*t*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. viii.

(73) See *La Voix Libre du Citoyen*, p. 149. et suiv. where this proposal is laid down at large. That piece, besides the inutility of the Pospolite, and the great inconveniencies unavoidably attending it, adduces another reason for its abolishment, the danger of the nobility being totally cut off at once, and buried in a field of battle. But I own such a danger seems little to be apprehended: defeats, in which the whole vanquished party is cut to pieces, are out of date. The slain of a defeated army are by much the

that such an innovation will ever be agreed to.

S E C T. L.

The Poles have but few fortified places; and up the country scarce any, the nobility looking on them both as unnecessary and dangerous to their liberty: only in Podolia, Caminiec and Zamoscie have been fortified, as barriers against the Turks; though the latter, at present, is of little importance. Towards Russia, Brandenburg, and Silesia, the country lies quite open. Cracow, however considerable formerly, is not tenable at present. Thorn in Prussia was once a strong place, but in the last Swedish war, the works were entirely rased. Elbing was likewise a fortification; but Dantzick is now the only place deserving that name (u).

S E C T. LI.

Some have advanced that no money was coined in Poland before the fourteenth century; but this is a mistake, Poland had both gold and silver coins so early as the eleventh. The mintage was a royal pre-

minority, the greater part saving themselves by retreat or flight; and some wounded, and some taken prisoners. And these, unless among the Turks and Tartars, are soon or late released.
(u) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. viii.

rogative, till Casimir the Great, and Ladislaus Jagellon exercised it with the advice and consent of the senators; afterwards the nobility being admitted into the government, their assent likewise became necessary; and thus the coinage was included in the diet's deliberations (*x*). The profit of the mintage accrued to the king, till Sigismund III. resigned it to the republic in 1632 (*y*). It has been settled by convention with Lithuania, Prussia, and Courland, that all those countries should coin their money according to the Polish standard: yet was the republic itself the first in deviating from the rule; for the two armies having, in John Casimir's time, entered into an open confederacy, on account of their arrears, the states of the kingdom, to appease the mutiny by paying the soldiers, had recourse to coining lighter money. Accordingly the coinage was farmed to two private persons, Titus Livius Boratin and Andrew Tympf, who deluging the kingdom with their base money (74), occasioned great confusions in the Polish coin and private trade. The states of the

(*x*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xii:

(*y*) Id. Lib. II. cap. x.

(74) The guilders coined by Tympf, which were about half their intrinsic worth, have always gone by his name. Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xii.

kingdom were for remedying these evils, by causing the money to be laid up in coffers, till the making of a new edict, concerning the coin. But diet after diet coming to no resolution on this head, the money remained coffered up (z), till at last, under the present king, new money has been coined.

The Poles reckon by guilders, grosches, and schillings. A guilder is thirty grosches, and a grosche three schillings.

By the new standard of 1765, the Cologne mark of fine silver makes, in coinage, eighty-four Polish guilders, in the following proportion to the new German money, of which a fine mark makes twenty guilders.

In S I L V E R.

		Doll.	Gr.
A specie dollar at 8 Polish guilders		1	8
Pieces of	4	0	16
	2	0	8
	1	0	4
	15 Gr.	0	2
	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	0	1

In C O P P E R.

Pieces of three and one Polish grosche, and in like manner, Schillings.

(z) Lengnich, Lib. IV. cap. xii. See also his History of Poland, p. 230.

Ducats are fixed at $16 \frac{3}{4}$ Polish guilders. The silver money is coined at Warsaw, and the copper at Cracow.

Polish Prussia still retaining the old Polish standard, a Prussian guilder is worth something above two Polish guilders: the Tympts, which were coined for a guilder or thirty grosches Polish, afterwards rising in Poland to thirty-eight grosches, in Prussia go only for eighteen grosches that country money (*a*).

S E C T. LII.

The king's
revenue.

There was, formerly, no difference between the king's and the republic's revenues; the king imposing taxes as circumstances required, suited them to his own necessities, and those of the commonwealth. But king Lewis declaring all his subjects exempt from taxes (*b*), the king's revenue arose from the lands belonging to him within the kingdom. These indeed were once very considerable, but have been gradually diminished by grants and sales, mortgages, and donations during life, as the starosties (75), fiefs, (76), bai-

(*a*) Lengnich, Lib. IV. c. xii.

(*b*) Id. Lib. IV. cap. xi.

(75) Capitaneatus. See above, Sect. XXXIX.

(76) In Latin they are called *Tenuta*, and consist of villages and farms.

liwicks;

liwicks (77). And these three sorts of lands are those which, at present, are called crown lands, though very improperly (*c*), not the least profit or advantage accruing to the king from them, he being obliged on their becoming vacant, immediately to dispose of them (*d*). Thus the incomes remaining to the king, being too scanty for the support of his household, it became necessary for others to be assigned to him, which Lithuania did in the year 1589, and Poland in 1590. These consisted of several parcels of land in Lithuania, the old customs (78), the Cracow and Russia salt-works, the silver mine at Olkufz (79), the starosties of Sandomir and Sambor; several estates in Prussia, called the stewardies of Marienburg, Dirschau, and Roggenhausen; some escheats in and about Cracow (80),

(77) In Latin *Advocatiæ*, by which are understood farms, meadows, mills, publick-houses, and one or more villages.

(*c*) Lengnich, Lib. II. c. xi.

(*d*) Id Lib: II. cap. x

(78) The customs in Poland are the old and new; the former, such as were imposed before the reign of king Sigismund I. the latter are posterior to that time. Lengnich, Lib. XI. c. x.

(79) The produce of the mine-works was once very rich, and they were vigorously carried on by private persons, who paid a certain deduction to the king; but they have now long since laid waste. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. x.

(80) These are called Magna Procuratio Cracoviensis; and the administrator of them had formerly the title of Magnus Procurator. These escheats were formerly very conti-

the pier-money at Elbing, and half of that at Dantzick (81). These revenues are called Royal Board Lands, OEconomies and OEconomical Lands (*e*), and must be carefully distinguished from the abovementioned crown lands. The king is not to diminish them; and as little is he allowed to encrease them; neither can he farm them to any other than Polish noblemen, residing in the palatinates. The produce of them is so very small as not to make a million of Polish guilders good Prussian money; so that king Michael, who had nothing but the Board Table Lands, could hardly keep up any thing of a kingly grandeur (*f*).

S E C T. LIII.

Republic's
revenues.

The republic's revenues consist mostly in taxes and imposts, as the land-tax, the cask excise on all kinds of liquors, beer, mead, wine, brandy; the cabaret-tax, payable by retailers of liquors; the excise on provisions and other necessaries; the capitation or poll-tax; the Jews tax, which is often raised; the tax on foreign traders and Tar-

derable; but they are at present farmed for 20,000 Polish guilders per annum. Lengnich, Lib. II. c. x.

(81) This is a duty payable by goods coming to both these cities by sea.

(*e*) Id. Ibid.

(*f*) Id. Ibid.

tars

tars in Lithuania; the tax on houses, commonly called smoke money, levied on all houses in town and country; the new customs, &c. Some of these taxes are constant, others only occasional, and temporary. Though taxes are not to be imposed but by the unanimous consent of the states, yet is it not required that they agree in one kind of taxes, which accordingly are different in Poland and Lithuania, and not unfrequently even in single wayvodships (g).

Among the lands and revenues of the republic may likewise be reckoned certain funds and interests lying in the kingdom of Naples, and to which the Poles lay claim, though they never yet could get possession of them (82). The neat produce of all the said

(g) Lengnich, Lib. IV. c. xi.

(82) The republic's claim on these funds are derived from queen Bona, consort to Sigismund I. and daughter to John Galeazzo Sforza, duke of Milan. On the demise of her spouse, she returned to Italy in 1556, and in the following year died at Bari in the kingdom of Naples. The king of Spain owed her 430,000 Neapolitan ducats, as king of Naples, and had assigned her 44,400 ducats annually as interest, payable out of the customs of Foggia. She and her children being dead, part of this capital devolved to her grandson Sigismund III. who, at his election-compact, assigned it over to the republic; yet both he and his sons Ladislaus IV. and John Casimir, took care constantly to receive the interest. The republic has since used many fruitless endeavours to procure the payment of the capital or interest, which has always met with insuperable difficulties amidst the many revolutions that have happened in the kingdom of Naples. Lengnich, Lib. II. cap. xv.

funds

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

funds amounts in the kingdom of Poland to 6,086,048 florins. Out of which is paid,

1. For the crown army	5,420,856
2. The artillery	— 147,798
3. Smaller matters	— 16,468
	<hr/>
Total	5,585,122
Remainder	<hr/> 500,926

The whole revenue of Lithuania is	— —	2,321,627
1. Paid for maintaining the Lithuanian army,	— —	2,067,627
2. For the artillery	—	69,000
		<hr/>
Total		2,136,627
Remainder		<hr/> 185,000

S E C T. LIV.

Agriculture.

Though the soil in Poland be fruitful, far is it from being properly cultivated: not less than a fourth part is computed to lie waste. On this account king Stanislaus earnestly exhorted the Polish nobility and gentry to treat their peasants with more equity and kindness, and exempt them from villanage, as it would tend greatly to the improvement of their own estates, to

the population of the kingdom, and likewise diffuse wealth and plenty (*b*).

S E C T. LV.

Poland has few or no manufactures or ^{Manufac-}fabricks. The inhabitants, indeed, have ^{tures.} little inclination or ability for such undertakings. The Poles either despise or detest foreigners, especially if of a different religion; a temper which must necessarily hurt trade and population: for who will employ his money or his talents, where he sees nothing but obstruction and malevolence, and can expect none of those advantages, which invite to a settlement and animate industry?

S E C T. LVI.

Poland indeed carries on no small land ^{Trade.} trade, and from Dantzick also by sea. It exports oxen, horses, hides, wool, feathers, wax, corn, hops, cummin, anniseed, timber, pot-ash, linen, &c. of which last commodities the Dutch particularly fetch great quantities. But after all, the Poles are no gainers by this trade, as purchasing from abroad necessaries and superfluities far exceeding all their exports. Trade might

(*b*) La Voix Libre du Citoyen, p. 244—247.

generally be put on a much better footing in this kingdom, particularly by the great conveniency of its many rivers; and by means of canals joining some of them, a communication might be accomplished between the Black Sea and the Baltick: but who is to defray the costs of such a work (*i*)?

S E C T. LVII.

Domestic
concerns of
the king-
dom of Po-
land.

The most interesting concern of every state, is to maintain the form of government as by law established. But when essential imperfections and defects are manifest, a change becomes necessary; and this in the opinion of a writer, who was himself at the head of this kingdom, is the present case of Poland. Among many defects which he takes notice of in the Polish constitution, the most evident and important are the abuses of the church lands, the instability of the public assemblies, which frustrates all resolutions; the dissolution of the diets, the inadequateness of the forces to the extent of the kingdom, and to the power of its neighbours; the low ebb of the public revenue; the scarcity of money, arising from the want of trade; the oppression and thralldom of the people; the

(i) See *Filch's Divine Oeconomy, &c. Vol. II.*

want of order and police in every part of the government; the unalterable form of the election of the king (*k*). He concludes with giving his countrymen very excellent instructions for removing these evils, and setting up a better form of government: but, in all appearance, they will never go beyond good wishes, whilst the nobility account their *Liberum Veto*, or the right of contradiction at a diet, the very soul and essence of Polish liberty.

As to the interest of Poland relatively to Foreign concerns. foreign powers, its situation seems very critical and dangerous. It is surrounded with very powerful neighbours, and the country, on all sides, open and defenceless; no fortified places, and with little or nothing of an army, artillery, or money, or any thing necessary in war. "Such a state," says a celebrated late writer, "must, at length, come under the yoke; and the day," adds he, "perhaps, is not far off; that day will be when the neighbouring powers shall have agreed about dividing it (*l*). But such an agreement has so many difficulties, that it is scarce to be apprehended; and a multitude of instances in all ages, proves that such concerted partitions, what

(*k*) *La Voix Libre du Citoyen*, p. 386.

(*l*) *M. de Real Science du Gouvern.* P. I. Tom. II. p. 597.

with

with the discords of the confederated parties, and unforeseen incidents, come to nothing; so that the final catastrophe of Poland, if to be brought about only by such a combination, is far from being so near as the said writer takes upon him to foretel. And though, setting aside that case, each of the great powers confining on Poland, be, of itself, strong enough to reduce it, yet, without a very great change in the affairs of Europe, the other neighbours, instead of permitting it, would hasten to succour the republic. Thus the jealousy of its neighbours, none of whom would tamely see so important a conquest in the hands of another, is a sure barrier, and secures it from all danger of becoming a prey to a conqueror, I may say, from any hostile attempt. But this presupposes Poland adhering to a pacific system, and not molesting or making war on its neighbours; for, in this case, though it should, from the foregoing reasons, escape being brought under a foreign dominion, it would at least be a great loser, and obliged to submit to an inglorious peace.

S E C T. LVIII.

The principal treaties between Poland Treaties: and other powers (83) are :

I. With FRANCE (*m*).

II. With DENMARK (*n*).

III. With SWEDEN (*o*).

IV. With the TEUTONIC ORDER
in PRUSSIA.

Treaty of peace of the 19th of October
1466 (*p*).

V. With BOHEMIA.

Treaties 1. Of the 24th of Aug. 1335 (*q*);
2. Of the 1st of May 1553 (*r*).

VI. With HUNGARY.

Treaty of the 8th of November 1412 (*s*).

(83) M. Dogiel, besides his description of the boundaries of Poland, has published the following voluminous work; *Fœdera, Conventiones, Litteræ, et cuiuscunque generis Acta Publica inter Regnum Poloniæ et Bohemiam, Hungariam, &c.* Tom. I. Vilnæ, 1758. fol. Tom. V. Ibid. 1759. Vid. Jantzotzky Excerpt. Vol. I. p. 58—74.

(*m*) Chap. iv.

(*n*) Chap. vii.

(*o*) Chap. viii.

(*p*) Du Mont, Corps Diplom. Tom. III. P. I. p. 348.

(*q*) Id. Tom. I. P. II. p. 150.

(*r*) Id. Tom. I. P. II. p. 285.

(*s*) Rouffet. Supplem. Tom. I. P. II. p. 331.

VII. With

VII. With the HOUSE of AUSTRIA.

Defensive and offensive alliance of the 31st of March 1683 (*t*).

VIII. With BRANDENBURGH and PRUSSIA.

Treaties 1. of the 19th of September 1657 (*u*); of the 6th of May 1657 (*x*).

IX. With RUSSIA.

Treaty of peace, 1. of 1634 (*y*); truce of the 30th of January 1667 (*z*); 3. peace of the 14th of April 1686 (*a*); 4. defensive and offensive alliance against Charles XI. of Sweden (*b*).

X. With the OTTOMAN PORTE.

Treaties of peace, 1. of 1621 (*c*); 2. of the 18th of October 1672 (*d*); 3. of the 16th of October 1676 (*e*); 4. of the 12th of October 1679 (*f*); 5. of the 26th of

(*t*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 62.

(*u*) Id. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 191.

(*x*) Puffendorff de Reb. Gest. Frid. Wilh. M. Lib. VI. p. 387.

(*y*) Ludolf's Theatrum Mundi, P. II. p. 362.

(*z*) Dumont, Tom. VII. P. I. p. 4.

(*a*) Id. Tom. VI. P. II. p. 125.

(*b*) Rouffet. Supplem. Tom. II. Part II. p. 38.

(*c*) Du Mont, Tom. V. P. XI. p. 371.

(*d*) Id. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 212.

(*e*) Id. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 325.

(*f*) Id. Tom. VII. P. I. p. 435.

January 1699 (*g*); 6. treaty concerning limits, of the 14th of November 1703 (*b*).

S E C T. LIX.

Histories of Poland have been written by ^{Historians,} Dlugofz (84), Cromar (85), Fulzstfn (86), Neugebauer (87), Lengnich (88), and Solignac (89).

S E C T. LX.

Descriptions of the kingdom, and accounts of the constitution of Poland, are to be found in Cromrs (90), Staravolsky (91), ^{Accounts of the state of Poland,}

(*g*) Du Mont, Tom. VII. P. II. p. 452.

(*b*) Rouffet. Supplem. Tom. II. P. II. p. 37.

(84) *Historiæ Polonicæ Libri XIII. ex Bibliotheca et cum præfatione* Henr. L. B. de Huysfen, 2 Tomi, Lips. 1711, 1712. fol. To the second volume are added, 1. Vincent. Kadlubkonis *Historia Polonica*; 2. Stanislai Sarnici *Annales*; 3. Stanislai Orichovii *Okfszi Annales*; 4. *Illustrium Virorum Epistolæ, Opera Stanisl. Carncovii*; 5. Stanisl. Sarnicii *Descriptio Poloniæ et Russiæ*.

(85) *De Origine et Gestis Polonorum*, Lib. XXX. Colonia, 1589, fol.

(86) *Chronica sive Historiæ Polonicæ compendiosa Descriptio*. Basileæ, 1615, 4to.

(87) *Historia Rerum Polonicarum Libris decem concinnata*. Hanoviæ, 1618, 4to.

(88) *Historia Polona a Lecho in Annum 1748, deducta*; Gedani, 1748, 8vo. A translation of this has been published in German.

(89) *Histoire Generale de Pologne*, 5 Tomes, à Amsterdam, 1751. This has likewise been translated into German, with notes and additions.

(90) *Poloniæ Gentisque et Reipublicæ Polonicæ Descriptionis, Libri II.*

(91) *Polonia*, Wratislaviæ, 1734. This is the newest edition.

Cellarius (92), Hauteville (93), Lengnich (94), and other writers (95.)

(92) Regni Poloniae Magnique Ducatus Lithuaniae omniumque Regionum Juri Polonico subjectarum novissima Descriptio. Amstelodami, 1659, 12mo.

(93) Relation Historique de Pologne, contenant le pouvoir de ses Rois, leur Election, & leur Couronnement, les Privileges de la Noblesse, la Religion, la Justice, les Moeurs et les Inclinations des Polonois, à Paris, 1687, 12mo.

(94) Jus Publicum Regni Poloni, 2 Tomi, Gedani 1742, 1746, 8vo. This has been translated into Polish by M. Mofzczenfky.

(95) Relation de l'Etat de Pologne & de la Republique, 1688, 12mo. By an anonymous author.

Memoires sur le Gouvernement de Pologne, à Manheim, 1759, 8vo. This likewise has been translated into German.

THE
PRESENT STATE
OF
EUROPE.

CHAP. X.
Of the EMPIRE of RUSSIA.
SECT. I.

FOREIGNERS in general used to Name.
call Russia by the name of Muscovy,
from the capital of the empire; and
the people Muscovites: it is only in the
present century that the name of Russia is
grown common. It is unquestionably de-
rived from the inhabitants the Ruffi; but
the origin of this name is not so certain.
Some deduce it from Rus the supposed
founder of the empire, whom they make
brother to Lechs the first Polish prince;
some from a town of great antiquity so
called; some from the peoples red hair,
Y 2 who,

who, on that account, were nick-named *Roffen*; and others again, from the ancient *Roxolani* (*a*); all which at best are but dubious conjectures, and some manifestly erroneous. The most antient known inhabitants of *Russia* were named *Tschuden* and of Finnish extraction, but expelled or subdued by the *Slavi* and the proper predecessors of the *Russians*. In the middle century the *Wareges* or seafaring people, a mixture of *Swedes*, *Danes*, and *Norwegians*, crossing the *Baltic*, came into these parts and very probably were first called *Russians* by the *Finlanders* (1), and to the same people the *Slavi* seem likewise to have owed that name. These afterwards becoming subject to the *Waregers* now called *Russians*, the name of their conquerors was given to them, and at length to the country itself (2); as *Gaul* received the name of *France* from the *Franks*, and *Britain* of *England* from the *Angles*.

(*a*) Herberstein in *Commentar. Rer. Muscovit.* p. 1. *Strahlenberg's North and East Parts of Europe and Asia*, p. 168.

(1) For to this day, the *Finlanders* call the *Swedes* *Russians*, or properly *Roffa-Laine*, though on what account is not known.

(2) This is the derivation of the name of *Russia*, for which *Mr. Muller*, professor at *Petersburgh* declares as most probable. *Dissert. de Originibus Gentis et Nominis Rufforum, Petropoli*, 1749. But the sale of that learned work has been prohibited.

S E C T.

S E C T. II.

The Russian empire reaches longitudinally ^{Situation, extent, and limits.} from the 40th to 205th deg and from 10 to 25 deg. north lat. so that its greatest length is 1245 geographical miles, and its greatest breadth 375. Its whole surface is computed at 300,000 such miles, containing more than one third of Europe and near as much of the continent of Asia: thus in extent it exceeds any monarchy in the universe either ancient or modern (3), and is one continued tract without the least separation by any foreign countries intervening (4). Westward it confines on Poland, the Baltic, and Sweden; northward, on the North and Frozen Sea; eastward on the streight which separates Asia from America (5), and the eastern ocean; south-

(3) According to M. Voltaire, the Russian empire is above 1,100,000 square leagues in extent, that is, as large again as all Alexander's dominions, or the so much boasted Roman empire itself. *Hist. de l'Empire de Russie, sous Pierre le Grand, Tom. I. ch. ii.*

(4) From Riga to Anadirskoi-Ostrog, which is the most eastern Russian colony, is a journey of 11,299 wersts, i. e. above 1600 geographical miles; and all along through the Russian dominions.

(5) That America is separated from the north east part of Asia, only by a narrow streight, has been shewn by Mr. Muller from the accounts of Russian mariners. Captain Beering, a Dane, in the year 1741, in his voyage from Kamtschatka eastward, actually discovered the continent of America at the 55th and 56th degree of north latitude. P.

ward on Great-Tartary, and particularly Mungalia, a dependency of China, the countries of the Caracalpacks; likewise on the empire of Persia and Lesser Tartary, as it is called (*b*).

S E C T. III.

Climate and
weather.

The parts of the Russian dominions being of such an extent, lie under different climates (*b*), consequently there must be a difference in the quality of the air and the heat and cold. It is, however, observed, that the latter is far greater than in the western parts of Europe under the same latitude (*c*).

V. Havens, Nye og Forbedrede Esterrätninger om det Russiske Rige, Deel. II. cap. iii. p. 26, 27, &c.

(*b*) See Voltaire's History of the Russian Empire under Peter the Great, Vol. I. cap. i.

(*b*) This may be sufficiently seen in the very different duration of the longest and shortest days, at some places in the southern, middle, and northern parts of this vast empire.

For at Astracan, the longest day is 15 hours, 36 minutes, and the shortest 8 hours 24 minutes.

At Kiow, the longest day is 16 h. 14 m. and the shortest 7 h. 46 m.

At Moscow, the longest day is 17 h. 14 m. and the shortest 6 h. 46 m.

At Tobolsk, the longest day is 17 h. 52 m. the shortest 6 h. 8 m.

At Petersburg, the longest day is 18 h. 30 m. and the shortest 5 h. 30 m.

A great part of the Russian empire lies still more to the northward than Archangel; and in the longest days the sun is not seen to set, as in the shortest not seen to rise. Busching's Geography, Vol. I. p. 399.

(*c*) Busching's Geography, article Russia.

S E C T. IV.

The European division of the Russian em-^{Mountains,}pire is, for the most part, a level country, but in the Asiatic are several vast mountains, particularly the stupendous chain extending itself from the Frozen Sea to the length of sixteen degrees southward, by the ancients called the Riphean mountains, by the Russians Kamanoi or Weliki-Poyas, "girdle of stones or great rocks," likewise Poyos Semnoi, "the earth's girdle (*d*).^d" In the extremities of Siberia, are several volcanos (*e*).^e

S E C T. V.

Russia is watered by a great many large^{Rivers,} rivers. In the European part of it are the Wolga, which discharges itself into the Caspian sea; the Don, into the sea of Asoph; the Nieper into the Black Sea; the Dwina, into the Frozen Sea; the Duna, into the Baltick; the Neva, into the Gulph of Finland. In the Asiatic parts, besides the Wolga beforementioned, are the Jaik, the Jem or Gihum, of which the former runs into the Caspian sea, the latter into that of Aral; the Ob or Obi, the Jenisei, the

(*d*) Strahlenberg.

(*e*) Idem.

Lena, and the Anadir. The three former join the Frozen Sea, the fourth the streight between Asia and America.

Russia, besides these rivers has several large inland lakes, as in the European parts the Peipus, the Ladoga, and Onega; and in the Asiatick the Caspian Sea, along which lies the kingdom of Astracan; likewise the lakes Aral, Baikal, Altin, or, as the Ruffians call it (7), Telekoi Osero.

S E C T. VI.

Fertility.

The different situations of the country naturally cause a remarkable difference in its fertility, which is very deficient in the northern parts, is not to be complained of in the middle, and in the southern it is abundant (8). The animal kingdom af-

(7) These and other large rivers and lakes are described more at large in Busching's Geography; and Perry, in his State of Russia, gives an entertaining account of some remarkable particulars in the Caspian-sea.

(8) Strahleberg divides Russia into four parts; the first between the 70th and 60th degree of north latitude; the second between the 60th and 57th; the third between the 57th and 54th; and the fourth betwixt the 54th and 48th. The first is destitute of corn, fruit-trees, and garden esculents, but abounds with berries and shrubs of various kinds, wild-fowl, and fish, and is but thinly inhabited; the second is less dreary, the inhabitants sowing some corn, and breeding cows, sheep, goats, and horses; the third has plenty of corn, fruits, and vegetables; the fourth, in which are Ukraine and Astracan, abounds in vegetables, fruits, and grains of all kinds. Astracan likewise produces wine, but good for little, by reason of the saline and nitrous soil, and will not keep.

fords

fords a sufficiency of black cattle, goats, sheep, horses, venison of all kinds, stags, elks, rein-deer, wild-boars, fallow deers, hares; with many beasts of prey, as bears, wolves, foxes, &c. In Siberia are likewise those beasts, the skins of which are very valuable, as sable, hyenas, ermin, black, blue, red, white, and other uncommon kinds of foxes, squirrels, beavers, and lynxes: tame and wild-fowl, as turkeys, pheasants, moorfowl, partridges, wood-cocks, geese, and ducks, may be said to swarm there. The lakes and rivers abound with variety of fish, the best and (9) largest of which are the beluga and the sturgeon, which last, the Russians call citrine or offetrine:

Russia has very large forests of oak, beach, pine, firs, birch, larch, and many other sorts of trees. Siberia affords a kind of cedar, but beyond the 60th deg. of north lat. little else is to be had but brush-wood. The middle and southern parts have plenty of fruit-trees of all kinds, as likewise of garden plants; and the Astracan melons are famous. The country here and there produces all kind of grain, as rye, barley, buck-wheat, peas, and vetches; but no oats, except a few about Moscow, and

(9) The roes of the beluga and sturgeon make the caviar. The former is accounted the best. Strahlenberg, p. 342.
these

these but very indifferent. Some places produce hemp and flax; and in the Ukraine tobacco begins more and more to be cultivated. But the country, of which a great part, especially in Siberia, lies waste, might be turned to greater advantage, with a proper spirit of industry, and more money and people to second it.

The mineral kingdom in Russia is very considerable, affording a great number of iron and copper-ores (10), and some in Siberia, which contain gold and silver (11). Here are likewise found topazes, agates, cornelians, green jasper speckled with red, Muscovy-glasses, very large magnets, and even whole mountains of magnet, and the northern parts afford pit-coal. Here are salt-lakes and salt-springs, which yield a salt as white as snow, besides a whole moun-

(10) The first search after silver and copper ores was set on foot about the year 1491, under John Basilowitz; but this work, probably, was soon discontinued, as we have no farther account concerning it. Under Michaelowitz, a Dane and a Hollander set up a regular iron mine-work, ninety wersts from Moscow, which still continues to be worked. The emperor Peter I. caused the mines of Olonesi and Catharinenburg, to be constructed, and instituted a mine-college. More copper and iron ores have been since discovered, and are worked by private persons.

(11) According to publick accounts the Siberian mine-works in March 1764, delivered into the Imperial treasury 1200 pounds of gold, and 16,000 pounds of silver; but without specifying of how long a time such a quantity might be the produce.

tain of salt, thirty fathom deep and two hundred in length, and consisting of a very hard, and transparent salt, and absolutely pure. Within the earth along the rivers Obi, Jenisei, Lena, and others, are found what is called Mammonts Bones, which probably are elephants bones and teeth; and accordingly are worked as ivory (*f*).

S E C T. VII.

The Russian empire containing a very ^{Division.} great part both of Europe and Asia, the geographers very properly divide it into European and Asiatic. But, as the many and large countries, of which it at present consists, instead of having always belonged to it, have been successively brought under the dominion of Russia by war, this has occasioned the division into Proper Russia, and the Conquered Countries. The former consists of Great, Small, and White Russia (12). Among these were, 1. In Europe, part of Finland; next Ingermanland, Livonia and Esthonia. 2. In Asia, the kingdoms of Casan, Astracan, and Siberia. But the emperor Peter divided the empire in a

(*f*) Busching, Article Russia.

(12) The countries now called Little and White Russia were, for some centuries, in the hands of the Poles, and from them received those names; when they were afterwards recovered by the Russians, the czars inserted them in their title. The name of Great Russia was used long before.

man-

manner entirely new, erecting out of all the countries, belonging to it, first eight, than nine, and afterwards ten governments (g). These have been encreased by his successors to sixteen, 1. That of Moscow. 2. Of Novogrod. 3. Of Archangel. 4. Of Nischnei-Novogrod. 5. Of Woronitz. These five compose Great Russia. 6. Of Kiow. 7. Of Belgorod. These two make Little Russia (13). 8. That of Smolensko, which consists of White Russia (14). 9. That of Riga. 10. Reval. 11. Peterburg. 12. Wyburg. These four include Livonia, Esthonia, Ingermanland, and part of Finland. 13. Astracan. 14. Orenburg. 15. Casan. 16. Siberia (15).

(g) Strahleberg, p. 180.

(13) This is commonly called the Ukraine, i. e. Frontier-Land, and is inhabited by the Cossacks, who are distinguished by the name of Malorossiske, i. e. Little Russia Cossacks.

(14) This is a part of White Russia, belonging to Lithuania, which, with the before-mentioned Little Russia, was ceded to Poland in the truce of 1667, and afterwards more fully at the peace in 1685.

(15) A Cofac, named Jermak Timofew, was the instrument, in a very extraordinary manner, of Siberia coming under the dominion of the Russians, who were not long in extending themselves, so that at the end of the sixteenth century, they had reduced all the north-east part of Asia. In the year 1698, another Cossack, by name Atlassof, subdued the peninsula of Kamschatka, the most remote country belonging to the government of Siberia. The history of Kamtschatka, and the Kurilsky-Islands, published in the Russian language, and translated by James Grieve, (Gloucester, 1764, 4to.) The government of Siberia is the largest, being no less than 800 German miles in length, and 300 in breadth; it is divided in-

These

These four constitute the Asiatick part of the Russian empire (*b*).

All the countries and territories which make part of the Russian empire are inseparably connected ; so that there is scarce any sensible difference between the chief country and the dependencies, except the provinces taken from the Swedes, which retaining their former rights by virtue of treaties of peace, on some particulars are on a better footing than the antient dominions.

S E C T. VIII.

The Russians are originally Slavi or Slavonians, and accounted descendants of those Slavonian colonies, which in the times of very remote antiquity dwelt along the Volga, and afterwards along the Danube in the parts occupied by Bulgaria and Hungary. But, according to the relations of old Russian historians, being driven from thence by the Wolochern or Wolotanern, by whom they meant the Romans, they removed to the banks of the Neiper, from whence, after making themselves masters of Poland, they spread themselves farther into the Eastern

to three provinces, Tobolski, Janisei, and Irkut, only the latter, instead of being under the governor, has a vice-governor, who is independent of him.

(*b*) Concerning all these governments, see Voltaire's Hist. of the Russian empire under Peter the Great, Vol. I. cap. i.

parts

parts of Russia, expelling or subduing the Tschuden its antient inhabitants (16), The time and more particular circumstances of these transactions are uncertain, except that in the ninth century, the Wargers came hither from Scandinavia and were by the inhabitants called Russians (*i*). These afterwards reduced the Slavi, but, at the same time so intermixing with them as to become one people, under one common name : for the Novogrod Slavi chose for their sovereigns three brothers, Ruric,

362.

(16) So the Russian historians call them, whereas foreigners distinguish them by the name of Scythians; and this implies no contradiction, the analogy of the names plainly indicating the Tschuden and Scythians to have been one people. The author of the *Lettres Moscovites*, however, gives a quite different origin to the Russians, alledging, from Herodotus, Lib. IV. c. iii. and Justin, Lib. III. c. 5. that the Scythians having been long detained abroad in their third Asiatic expedition, according to Herodotus twenty-eight years, and Justin's account only eight, their impatient wives married their slaves, who, on the return of their former masters, opposed their entrance into the country, sword in hand, but the Scythians put them to the rout only by scourges: hereupon the defeated slaves bent their flight northwards to a country at that time uninhabited, which their descendants still possess, and that this country was called Rusland, as the place to which they had fled is still known by the name of Clepigorod, i. e. Slave's-Town. The author is hugely pleased with this conceit, (*voyez la Lettr. V. p. 143, 144. et la Postface, p. 355, 356*) which he, by a great mistake, represents as something new, and very acceptable to philosophy, though he has not given the least degree of probability to it; Herodotus and Justin being wholly silent as to the place or country to which the slaves betook themselves after their defeat.

(*i*) See above, Sect. I.

Sinan,

Sinau, and Truvor, who were Waregers. They had divided the country between them, but the two last dying, Ruric became sole sovereign (17). He was succeeded by his son Igor: but, by reason of his minority, the government was committed to Oleg, a near relation of his, who reduced the southern parts of Russia, and removed the residence to Kiow. It was not till after his decease that Igor took on himself the government, and he fell in a battle against the Drulands, and Swatoslaw his son being a minor, his consort Olga was made regent. She embraced the Christian faith, and, on that account, was surnamed the Holy. Swatoslaw's martial temper proved fatal to him in an action on the banks of the Neiper, against the Petschengs: his eldest son Jaropolk reigned after him, but was murdered by the practices of Waldemir his younger brother, who seized on the government. He afterwards was converted to Christianity, in which his example was followed by great numbers of his subjects. After him Swatopolk, his

(17) Mr. Haven relates, from an old chronicle, that Ruric came to Russia from Stargorod in Waregen; this he illustrates by Oldenburgh in Wragia, adding, that Ruric called his new settlement Novogorod, in memory of the former; that his arms was a buffaloe's head, and he originally a Vandalian. Haven's Esterrätninger, Deel. I. cap. vii. 111. 112.

or his brother Jaropolk's son, ascended the throne ; but having caused three of his brothers to be put to death, another of them, by name Jaroslaw, forced him to fly the country, and possessed himself of the Russian monarchy which, at that time, consisted of Novogrod and Kiow. Perpetual discords and enmities prevailed among his sons and successors, one continually dethroning another, till his grandson Wladimir Monomachus restored the public tranquillity. He took a journey into Greece, and the emperor Alexis Comnenus presenting him with the diadem, which distinguished princes of those times, he caused himself to be crowned czar and absolute monarch of Russia. He was no sooner in his grave than the intestine feuds broke out again ; the regular succession was disregarded amidst the contests of those ambitious princes, all striving by force and fraud to raise themselves to the throne, and sometimes it was filled by two at a time. Andrew, a grandson of Wladimir Monomachus, removed the residence of the court from Kiow to Wladimir. The empire having in the mean time been extremely weakened by partitions and domestic quarrels, the Tartars invaded Russia, and Chan Bathi made the great dukes of Russia vassals ; so that he and his successors raised

raised and deposed them at pleasure, laid tributes, and exercised an unlimited authority over them. About this time, however, Alexander, great prince of Novogrod, a descendant of Wladimir Mo-^{1252.} nomachus, signalized himself in Livonia by his achievements against the Swedes and^{1264.} the Knights of the Sword ; but towards the close of his life he resigned the sovereignty, and retired into a convent (18). His two^{1281.} sons Andrew and Daniel reigned after him, though not immediately, the former at Wladimir, the latter at Moscow ; and both closed their lives after the example of their father. Iwan, Daniel's younger son,^{1328.} was installed by the Tartars as great prince both of Wladimir and Moscow. His eldest^{1340.} son Simon succeeding him, was afterwards elected great prince of Novogrod. On his^{1353.} decease the Tartars conferred the government on the second son Iwan ; who, likewise, with their consent, was succeeded by his son Demetrius, though not immediately. Af-^{1362.} ter his demise his son Waflei, or Basil, was advanced to the sovereignty, and after

(18) The Russian church sainted him, and even Peter I. erected a stately convent to him, on the field of one of his most signal victories, and caused his body to be brought thither from Wladimir ; instituting likewise an order of his name ; and the czarina Elizabeth had a silver coffin made for his bones.

1389. him his son, who was accordingly called
 1415. Basil Bafilowitz; tho' not without great op-
 position, and even having his eyes put out by
 Jurje, his cousin, which caused him to be
 1462. nicknamed The Blind. His son John I.
 or John Bafilowitz, at length shook off the
 Tartarian yoke, in which he was not a
 little assisted by the prudence and sagacity
 of his second spouse Sophia, a princess de-
 1478. scended from the Palæologi, emperors of
 Greece. He reduced the opulent and power-
 ful city of Novogrod, which had hitherto
 set up for independency, demolishing the
 far greater part of it. He subjected the
 princes of Severien and the kings of Casan
 under his dominion, and so extended his
 conquests on all sides, that he may be
 looked on as the founder of the Russian
 1505. empire in its present amplitude. His son
 and successor Bafilowitz added to his em-
 1514. pire Pleskow and Smolensko; and his son
 John Bafilowitz II. conquered the two
 Tartarian kingdoms of Casan and Astra-
 1554. can. But in Livonia and Esthonia his
 arms had little success, unless in barba-
 rously ravaging those countries with fire
 and sword. In his last years, however, he
 1577. had the satisfaction of seeing the first pro-
 gresses towards the conquest of Siberia.
 His-

History terms him terrible and cruel (19), but in other respects he was a prince of great capacity, and attentive to every political improvement. He was succeeded by his son Feodor I. who being a weak and timorous prince, his father-in-law Boris Godunoff governed in his name. Boris was ambitious and crafty, paving his way to the throne; and the better to remove obstructions he caused Demetrius the czar's younger and only brother, to be murdered, which proved a source of inexpressible calamities to Russia.

On the demise of Feodor, the last of the Ruric family, Boris, by dint of artifice and all kinds of illegal practices, got himself chosen czar. But an impostor, Grischka Rasfriga, pretending to be the murdered Demetrius, and having gained a considerable party both in Poland and Russia, marched to Moscow with a great force, which filled the czar with such terrors that he prevented the impending troubles by taking poison. His successor in the throne was his son Feodor; but on Grischka appearing before Moscow, he was deserted by all, and after

(19) The celebrated Treuer has endeavoured to clear him from this reproach in his *Apologia pro Joanne Basilide Tyrannidis vulgo falsoque infimulato*, (Viennæ 1711, 4to.) and his *Introduction to the History of Muscovy*.

1606. a mock reign of only six weeks, put to death by the conqueror's command. Grifchka now assumed the government by the name of Demetrius; but was so unequal to the station, and so disliked by the Russians, that, by the contrivance of Basil Schniskoy, he and several Poles were massacred. Hereupon Basil became czar, but a supposititious Demetrius starting up soon after, the Russians of all degrees split into parties, and applied to the Poles and Swedes for help. Some even chose Ladislaus, son to Sigismund III. king of Poland, and having caused Basil Schniskoy to undergo the monachal tonsure, delivered him up to the king of Poland. The Poles likewise made themselves masters of the city of Moscow, and subdued Smolensko, Severien, and Zernichow. On the other hand, the Swedes took Novogrod and other places, whilst anarchy with all its calamities daily increased.

1611. Some patriotic Russians had at length the good fortune to drive the Polish garrison out of Moscow; whereupon the election of a czar being taken in hand without delay, Michael Feodorowitz Romanow was chosen. He restored the tranquility of the nation both at home and abroad, though not without some losses, yield-

yielding to Sweden, at the peace of Stol-
 bow, Ingermanland, and Carelia; and to
 the Poles Smolensko, Severien, and Zer-^{1618.}
 nichow, by the truce at Divilina, which ^{1634.}
 afterwards was changed into a settled peace
 by the treaty of Viasna. But his son and ^{1645.}
 successor Alexis, availing himself of the
 Cossacks having revolted against the Poles, ^{1654.}
 not only recovered these provinces, but
 likewise reduced Kiow and the Ukraine ^{1655.}
 beyond the Nieper. His eldest son Feodor ^{1676.}
 Alexiowitz succeeded him in the throne;
 but being a prince of a weakly constitution
 died after a reign of six years, without heirs. ^{1682.}
 His two brothers, John and Peter, were
 hereupon proclaimed czars; and, by reason
 of the imbecility of the former, and the
 youth of the latter, the government was
 committed to their sister Sophia. But this
 princess, who had an ambition equal to her
 address, forming schemes to raise herself to
 the throne, her brother Peter, on being ap-^{1689.}
 prised of the plot, clapped her at once into a
 convent, and took the government into his
 own hands, his brother John having willingly
 resigned it. He not only aggrandized his
 empire by large conquests northward (20) and

(20) The Swedes at the peace of Niesadt 1721, ceded to
 Russia, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingermanland, and a part of Fin-
 land.

southward (21), but likewise introduced trade, manufactures, and all the arts of war and peace, which till then had been unknown, and improved savage Russia into a civilized and regular state. He was the first of the Russian monarchs who stiled himself emperor. At his demise, his grandson Peter II. was the only prince of the imperial family surviving; yet, instead of immediately succeeding him, Catharine, the empress dowager, was preferred, and before her death she declared this young prince her successor, but he died without heirs before he had enjoyed the throne quite three years. Hereupon the spiritual and temporal grandees of Russia, together with the senate, elected Anne, dutchess dowager of Courland, youngest daughter to czar John Alexowitz. She powerfully assisted Frederic Augustus elector of Saxony in obtaining the crown of Poland, and afterwards, on account of the depredations committed in the Ukraine by the Crim Tartars, made war on the Turks, and took from them Azoph, Oczakow, and Moldavia; but all was given back at the peace. Before her decease, she had nominated for her successor John III. son to her niece

1727.

1730.

1733.

1740.

(21) Schach Tamasib ceded several provinces to Peter I. but his successors have returned them.

Anne, an infant of three months old ; and the count of Biron, who, by her means, had been chosen duke of Courland in 1737, was declared regent of the empire during his minority. But he was soon dispossessed of the regency by the young emperor's mother, who assumed it under the title of Great Dutchess. She had scarce tasted of sovereignty when Elizabeth, youngest daughter to Peter I. in one night placed herself on the throne. This princess put a very happy and honourable end to the war (22) which Sweden had begun under the former government, and improved this opportunity to get Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstein and bishop of Lubeck, declared successor to the crown of Sweden. Pursuant to a close alliance into which she entered with Austria, she made war on Prussia, which being bare of troops her forces easily took possession of, and it appeared as if her intention was to keep these conquests ; but she did not live to see the end of the war. Her sister's son Peter III. duke of Holstein, who succeeded her in the government, having been nominated long before, not only clapped up a peace but likewise entered into

(22) Sweden, by the treaty of peace at Abo, in 1743, ceded the province of Kymmenegard, together with fort Nyflot.

a close alliance with the king of Prussia, as a means of making good his pretension to Sleswick against Denmark: but in the midst of his preparations he, by a no less astonishing than sudden change of fortune, was deprived both of crown and life, and his spouse raised to the throne by the name of Catharine II. In the continuance of the war between Prussia and Austria, she observed a neutrality, but afterwards leagued with the king of Prussia, and both joined in promoting the election of count Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowsky, to the crown of Poland.

S E C T. IX.

Character
of the Rus-
sians.

The vast circuit of the Russian empire contains a multitude of nations very different in their manners, way of living, language, and religion. The Russians themselves, as the chief nation, have not long since been described as savage, servile (23), rudely ignorant (24), and given up to gluttony and other vices (*k*). They might be said to be detached from the other Europeans, having little trade or intercourse

(23) *Servituti gens nata ad omne libertatis vestigium ferox est; placida si prematur.* Barclaius in *Icon. Animor.* cap. viii. p. 451.

(24) *Fertur populus adeo literarum rudis esse, ut pauci, inter illos vulgatissimas preces memoria teneant, quibus nomen propitiamus.* Ibid.

(*k*) See Olearius Travels.

with

with them; and in their apparel and some customs, more resembled the Asiaticks (25). They were likewise extremely tenacious of their ancient manners and usages, and with all their submission and passive obedience to their monarchs (26), shewed an uncommon obstinacy and refractoriness at any alteration, though in matters quite indifferent, as admitting a new fashion instead of an old one (27). Peter I. was therefore put to no little difficulty to bring about the great alterations which he had planned, many of which were not confined to externals, but thwarting the very genius and temper of the people. His firmness and the intermixed use of corrosives and lenitives, gradually accomplished his views, and gave a new appearance both to the people and the state. The introduction of arts and sciences and foreigners of abilities, and encouraging the young noblemen to travel, so contrary to their former custom, have greatly contributed to humanize and improve the

(25) So lately as the beginning of the great Northern war, they used to make a sale of the Swedish prisoners. Weber, Vol. I. p. 416.

(26) *Ultero fatentur Principi se servire, illi in suas opes, in corpora, vitamque jus esse.* Barclai. l. c.

(27) The shaving of the beard, and a new manner of dressing, enjoined by Peter I. occasioned great discontents. He was exclaimed against as a tyrant; and in Astracan these frivolous innovations excited a general insurrection. Perry, p. 308, 309. Strahleberg, p. 248, 249.

nation. The Russians, in general, are of an honest, serious countenance and carriage; have a very good natural understanding, a strong imagination, and, consequently, ingenuity and wit; withal are very vehement in their passions; and great lovers of whatever strikes the eye, though, on a closer view, it has neither symmetry, order or beauty, and some say this taste declares itself in their towns and houses. In common life they are full of ceremonies, and tedious in their marks of respect; the very peasants use titles of eminence towards one another. In their apparel, which is generally in a foreign cut, persons of any rank both male and female are very fond of shew and richness; the latter, from the highest to the lowest use paint, accounting that there can be no beauty without a flush in the face. The commonalty live a wretched life, without so much as what may properly be called a window, looking glass, chair, bed, or bedstead in their dwellings, and their fare all the year round is turneps, cabbages, radishes, onions, pease, and a small pittance of flesh or fish. They breed up their children hard, and enure them betimes to heat and cold; it is customary to bathe them in warm water, plunging them immediately
I after

after in cold, or in winter in the snow; and this practice is continued when grown up, frequent bathing, at least once or twice a week, being deemed not only a point of cleanliness, but absolutely necessary to health (28). This in reality hardens them so, that it must be owned they bear the inclemencies of the air beyond any other nation. One of their hereditary vices is fondness for strong and spirituous liquors, which among the commonalty is excessive; and so little is drunkenness accounted a vice or disgrace, that, at certain seasons, both men and women are seen reeling about the streets. Having always been accustomed to a severe and arbitrary government, and the power of parents over their children, of husbands over their wives, and masters over servants being almost uncircumscribed (*l*), they pay great respect to their superiors, and submit to their commands, if not contrary to certain favorite customs or prejudices, with the most resigned obedience (*m*). Since Peter I. plots and tumults have been seldom heard of; for as to the violent revolutions

(28) Besides the usual baths in the bagnios, they have three other kinds, one of which they use as the most effectual medicament in any violent distemper. Weber, P. I.

(*l*) Supplement to the History of Russia, a German work, p. 56.

(*m*) Haven, P. I. chap. xviii.

of the throne, but a very small number of persons were concerned in those events; all the part the people acted being only to acknowledge the new sovereign, and be as dutiful and submissive to him as they were to the former.

S E C T. X.

Language.

The Russian language is derived from the old Slavonian, and divided into several dialects, as those of Moscow, Novogrod, Archangel, and Ukraine. It has forty-two letters, mostly borrowed from the Greek, and a few from the Hebrew (29): this number is owing to their representing two or three letters as ch, sch, tsch, ph, ps, tz, rs, by single and distinct characters. The sciences in Russia being but just beginning to shoot forth, their language is not yet considered as one of the learned: it is, however, daily improving, and made a conveyance of useful knowledge; many books from the ancient and modern languages being translated into

(29) According to the Russian annals, Michael, emperor of Constantinople, sent the Slavonian letters into Bulgaria, about the year 6406, according to the Russian chronology, or 898 of the Christian *Æra*; and since that period the Russians have begun to take account of their history. Heberstein *Commentar. Rer. Moscovit.* p. 3. But these Slavonian characters were no other than those used by the Greeks in the ninth century.

it,

it (30), which cannot but greatly contribute to its purity, elegance, regularity, and copiousness.

S E C T. XI.

The Russian empire is thirty times as large as France or Germany, but for population will not bear any comparison with those countries: its towns, which in any wise deserve that name, are reckoned only 358, whereas those in Germany exceed 2300, exclusive of burroughs and large villages, most of which surpass Russian towns (*n*). Some compute the inhabitants of the Russian empire at 12,000,000 (*o*), setting aside the Finlanders, Livonians, Esthonians, Cossacks, Kalmucs, Tartars, Samoiedes, and Laplanders; so that, including these at 3,000,000, the total will be 15,000,000. Others raise the aggregate number to 24,000,000 (*p*): which is a very great difference. On examining the grounds of both calculations, one ap-

Number of
inhabitants.

(30) Peter I. caused translations to be made of Cæsar's Commentaries, Quintus Curtius, Sleidan's Four Monarchies, Puffendorf's Introduction to History, and several other useful books. French Tragedies are now translated into the Russian language, and acted.

(*n*) Voltaire's History of the Russian Empire, &c. Vol. I. chap. ii.

(*o*) Haven, Part I. c. xviii.

(*p*) Voltaire's Hist. Vol. I. ch. ii.

pears too small (31) and the other as much to exceed (32); hence a medium, determining the total of the inhabitants at 20,000,000, may be nearer the truth (33); whereas if peopled according to its extent, the number should at least be 200,000,000 (9). This deficiency of depopulation a certain

(31) Haven grounds his calculation on a tax-register of 1725, which makes the number of males 5,091,855, but without including the peasantry in the government of Worontzkoy, Kiow, Casan, Astracan, and likewise Siberia, and the slobodes, or small towns; whom adding to the former, together with the military, the placemen, the nobility, and the clergy, as exempt from taxes, he encreases the males to six millions, with an equal number of females, and this makes the total twelve millions. But it is to be observed, that the tax-register of 1725, was made at a time when the country had been extremely exhausted by a twenty years war, since which the species has been considerably encreased; and the persons omitted, as exempt from taxes and on other accounts, may have exceeded his computation.

(32) Voltaire follows a tax-register of 1747, according to which the taxable males, children and old men included, amounted to 6,646,390. This number he triples, adding to it the females, and thus makes up his twenty millions, which is a manifest exaggeration; for, how can two females be reckoned for one male? To this groundless surplus he adds the persons exempt from taxes, the inhabitants of Livonia, Esthonia, &c. the Cossacks, Calmucks, Tartars, &c. who are not included in the tax-register; and thus will have the total of the several inhabitants of the Russian empire to be twenty-four millions. Voltaire's Hist. &c.

(33) This is the number at which the celebrated Busching rates them, from a tax-register from 1744 to 1751; according to which the male-burghers and peasants, children included, of eleven governments amounted to 6,732,633. Then adding those in the other five governments, together with the persons exempted from taxes, makes the entire number of males to be ten millions; and this sum, doubled for the females, raises the total to twenty millions.

(9) See Susmilch's Display of the Divine Oeconomy, &c. Vol. II. c. xx.

writer charges on the Russian custom of bathing their children in hot, and afterwards in cold water; and to the universal prevalence and malignity of the venereal distemper, particularly in Siberia (*r*). If the state be deprived of great numbers of inhabitants by those causes, the many wars in which Russia has been engaged since the beginning of this century, must have no less contributed to this depopulation (*s*); every campaign, from several circumstances (34), costing it a far greater number of men than any other state in Europe.

S E C T. XII.

The Russian nobility consisted formerly of Kniafes, i. e. princes, and Dworenins, or common noblemen (35). The princes themselves may be divided into three classes,

Russian nobility and gentry.

(*r*) See Supplement to the History of the Russian Empire.

(*s*) See Mr. Susmilch, Vol. II. p. 200.

(34) As the long marches of the new levies to the rendezvous, where they are taught their exercise, and from thence to the army, which generally lies at a great distance. The hardships undergone in these fatigues sweep away a great part of the recruits before they come to face an enemy; so that the Russians are said to have lost in the war with Prussia, above 200,000 men.

(35) It was a mistake in former writers to set down the bojars next to the kniafes as noblemen, they having never been a class of the nobility. Bojar was only a name of office, and a title given to the principal officers of the state and privy counsellors; among whom were sometimes kniafes. Since Peter I. the word bojar is grown out of use.

1. those

1. those descended from Wladimir, or who were raised to that dignity by him; and, among these are the Dolgoruckis, and the Repnins; 2. some foreign families, as Gallitfin, Trubetzkoï, Kurakin, Chavonski, all issued from the old dukes of Lithuania; 3. and the third class is composed of the new created princes, as Cantimir, Wolkonfskoi, Menzikof, but these are not to be confounded with the petty kniafes of Tartarian lineage, who make a body of about two hundred families: this title was granted them on their conforming to Christianity, when they peremptorily refused to be baptised on any other condition. Otherwise they are reckoned only on a level with the nobility (*t*).

Counts and barons were formerly unknown in Russia, till Peter I. introduced those titles, and both he and his successors have not been sparing of them even towards foreign families (*u*).

Certain families among the untitled nobility, or gentry, are distinguished by privileges, particularly those out of which the czars formerly chose their consorts, having thereby attained to great consideration and opulence, yet without any

(*t*) Strahlemburg, p. 301.

(*u*) Haven, P. I. c. xiii.

title (*x*). The Syn Bojarskoi, i. e. sons of Bojars, as they were called, had likewise some distinctions; nobility not being estimated merely according to the antiquity of families or degree of rank, but according to the smaller or greater number of persons of merit, and eminent statesmen or warriors, in which one family exceeds another (*y*). But this occasioning many disputes about precedence, Feodor Alexowitz put a stop to these bickerings, throwing the patents of nobility into the fire, and declaring that for the future all pre-eminence should go by merit, without any regard to birth (*z*). The great Peter fully enforced this declaration, annexing rank only to civil and military posts, totally abolishing the derivation of privileges from the several degrees of nobility (*a*).

They who, from a low birth, have raised themselves to be officers, acquire nobility for themselves, and such of their issue as are born after their preferment (*b*).

The nobility compose the first class of the Russian nation; the two others are the

(*x*) Haven, P. I. cap. xiii.

(*y*) Strahleberg, p. 301.

(*z*) Id. Ibid.

(*a*) Order concerning Precedence, Article VIII. Haven,

P. 14.

(*b*) Ibid. Art. XV.

burghers, who are circumstanced just as in Poland; and the peasants who are vassals either to the crown, the clergy, or the nobility.

S E C T. XIII.

Prerogative
of the Rus-
sian mo-
narchs.

The power of the Russian monarchs has always been the most arbitrary of all Europe, so as to have a great affinity with the despotism prevailing among the orientals. Their subjects are so dependant on them, that their persons, goods, and life itself, lie at their pleasure, without any subterfuge or contradiction whatever (36). The government here is sometimes extremely severe, enacting uncommon laws (37), and inflicting shocking punishments (38). In no country are sanguinary executions, severe corporal punishments, exiles and confisca-

(36) Honor principi tantus ab omnibus defertur, quantum vix cogitatione intelligi potest. Ab ipso, si non credunt, certe ita crebro fatentur, se vitam, salutem omniaque habere, ut et gratiæ Dei et Clementiæ magni czarîi—juncta tribuere putentur: et verberati ac propemodum morientes, id loco beneficii sese interdum dicant accipere. Anton. Possévin Commentar. de Reb. Moscovit. P. XVI. p. 6.

(37) Peter I. published an order, under pain of death, against any one's interceding for another. Weber, Vol. II. p. 167.

(38) The clergy having refused to pay a subsidy for the war, and even exhorted the people from the pulpit against paying it, John Basilowitz II. set twenty of them to fight with bears, and they were all torn to pieces, without any interposition. Weber P. III. Two senators being convicted of perjury, Peter I. ordered their tongues to be pulled out with red hot irons. Strahlenberg, p. 238.

tions,

tions, so frequent as in Russia (39). Here is a private chancery, and a private inquisition, where suspected persons, or who are informed against (40), for having spoken or for carrying on any evil designs against the government or the sovereign, are privately tried (c). Thus the monarch is provided with sufficient means for maintaining his sovereignty, and securing himself against any practices of malecontents. His hand raises the poor and mean from the dust; and one word from him immediately crushes the great and wealthy; honour and posts are taken away as suddenly as conferred, and the prince and powerful placeman of to-day, is the next thrown down among the lowest of the populace. These are strongly marked tokens of despotism.

S E C T. XIV.

It was customary for the monarch of Russia, in the most important affairs of state and government, to act only from his own im-

Several efforts for limiting it.

(39) A list of the principal persons who have undergone these punishments from 1724 to 1742, is to be found in Haven, P. I. cap. xii.

(40) Czar Alexis Michaelowitz first instituted the private chancery, for enquiring into cases relating to his person. Strahleberg, p. 214. From the law-book which he published, false informations appeared to have been very common.

(c) Haven, P. II. cap. xi.

pulse, without consulting any other persons for their approbation or consent. His will was the only rule of his measures; and the great men and the nobility saw themselves bound to the most implicit submission equally with the lowest of the people. It appears, however, that they have not been totally wanting in endeavours to set themselves at liberty, and procure a share in the government. On the election of Knias Basil Schuiskoy, after killing the pretended Demetrius, he was obliged to promise “not to make any new laws, nor alter the former, nor impose any taxes without their previous knowledge;” and afterwards, when Michael Romanoff was chosen czar, other conditions were added, particularly, that he should “maintain and defend the Greek religion, and neither enter into a war, nor make peace of his own accord (*d*).” His son and successor Alexis bound himself at his coronation, to the observance of the same conditions; and though he immediately entertained arbitrary designs, yet he proceeded very cautiously, sometimes giving way, and even consented to the Bojars making peace with Poland sooner than he could have wished (*e*).

(*d*) Sirahleberg, p. 201, 202, 203.

(*e*) *Ib.* p. 212, 214.

But under his successors no mention was made of these conditions; and the great men and nobility sunk into such tameness and insignificance as to be stripped of all manner of influence in the government. Czar Feodor Alexowitz burned their patents, and deprived them of their privileges (*f*). Peter I. humbled them still more, causing the young nobility to be indiscriminately pressed for soldiers and sailors (*g*), and totally suppressed all rank derived from birth (*b*), however illustrious. He likewise governed more arbitrarily than any of his predecessors, and quelled all the tumults and plots formed against him, by the expeditious death of the accomplices. On the decease of his grandson Peter II. the grandees and the senate elected Anne, dutchess dowager of Courland, as a mean for limiting the prerogative, and presented to her the following compact of election; “ to make the senate’s approbation the
 “ rule of her government; not to enter
 “ into a war or conclude a peace without
 “ their consent; not to impose any taxes,
 “ or dispose of any considerable employ-
 “ ments; not to punish any nobleman ca-

(*f*) See above, Sect. XII.

(*g*) Strahlemberg, 241, 260.

(*b*) See Haven, P. I. cap. xiv.

“ pitally, or confiscate his estate, but on
 “ full conviction; not to give any orders
 “ concerning the crown-lands, nor alienate
 “ any of them; not to marry without the
 “ consent of the senate, nor nominate a
 “ successor.” These limitations were highly
 displeasing to the new czarina; still she
 thought it adviseable to sign the compact.
 She, however, was no sooner seated on the
 throne than she declared the compact of no
 effect, and even tore it to pieces (*i*); so that
 every thing was put on the footing as under
 Peter I. and the two following reigns took
 care to continue it so. But Peter III. as-
 cending the throne, gave a signal proof
 that he did not intend to govern despoti-
 cally, discharging, by edict, the nobility
 from the extreme subjection in which they
 had hitherto been kept, and granting them
 all the privileges held by the nobility of Li-
 vonia and other conquered provinces; that
 they might enter into the service of such
 foreign powers as were well disposed to-
 wards the empire (*k*). He likewise sup-
 pressed the private chancery, where inno-
 cence had frequently been involved in the
 penalties due to guilt (*l*). His successor,

(*i*) Weber, Vol. III. p. 183, &c.

(*k*) Merc. Hist. et Polit. Mars, 1762.

(*l*) New Genealog. and Hist. Pieces, Vol. V.

Catharine III. governs with the like moderation and lenity, and suitable wisdom; so that the happy period seems at hand, when all remains of the former severe and despotic government will be effaced.

S E C T. XV.

The succession has ever been hereditary, and the right of primogeniture constantly observed, though not without exceptions; The succession, and ordinance concerning it. some of the reigning monarchs having on certain circumstances deviated from that regularity. John Basilowitz settled the succession on his younger son Gabriel, in preference to his grandson by his elder son Demetrius; and though before his death he had revoked that ordinance, it remained in force, and Demetrius was excluded (*m*). Feodor Iwanovitz, the last of the Warenger line, nominated in his last hours his kinsman Feodor Nicolas Romanoff, but this disposition did not take place: and czar Feodor Alexowitz, to the exclusion of John the elder brother, declared his younger brother Peter his successor (*n*). These, however, were extraordinary cases, which did not set aside the usual succession. But

(*m*) Treuer's Introduction to the Hist. of Muscovy, p. 19.

(*n*) Lomonossoff, p. 37, 48.

Peter I. made a total change in it, occasioned by his eldest son Alexis, who could not digest the late innovations, and to avoid the indignation of his father, who sought to reclaim him from his undutifulness and notorious vices, had secretly withdrawn out of the empire. For this and other misdemeanors Peter excluded him from the throne, as undeserving of it (41), and settled the succession on his second son Peter (o); but he dying soon after, the emperor issued this very extraordinary edict (42) “ that the reigning emperor should always “ be allowed to nominate whom he pleased “ for successor; and, after nomination, to “ exclude him on finding him incapable or “ unfit (43).” To this ordinance all the

(41) These causes were set forth in the manifesto of Feb. 3, 1718. But there seems besides those to have been another, his great love for his second spouse Catharine, and his children by her; else he would scarce have settled the succession on his second son Peter, a child only in his third year, and thus could not know whether he would prove more deserving than his eldest son whom he had excluded, as likewise a son of the unhappy Alexis, and who had given no offence.

(o) Lamberti Mem. Tom. ii. p. 95.

(42) It is dated the 5th of Feb. 1722, and is to be found in the Ceremonial de Russie, § ii. dans le Ceremonial Diplomat. de Rouffet, Tom. II. p. 624.

(43) The emperor had, so early as the year 1714, made a law for his subjects, that with regard to all immoveable goods which by primogeniture were to fall to one son, the parents should be at liberty to bestow them on whomsoever they judged most deserving of them. Rabener's Life of Peter I. (a Ger-

states, spiritual and temporal, were sworn, and engaged to obey the successor whom he should appoint, and acknowledge him as their sovereign (44).

S E C T. XVI.

In this disposition of the throne, ut-^{Reflection on this ordinance.}terly unusual in Europe, and very probably borrowed from China (45), seems to lie the real cause of the succeeding commotions. These, in a great measure, have arisen from a defect in the law, as not providing against a vacancy of the throne when no successor has been nominated: a case very possible, both from the uncertainty of human life, a sudden and unexpected death, and several other causes; as indeed it did actually come to pass in the person of Peter I. himself, and afterwards in his grandson Peter II. It was farther necessary, (as by the new law, the succession, according to pri-

man work) p. 704. Some conceive that by this, he meant to pave the way to that plan of succession which he had then determined on within himself. *De Real Science*, &c.

(44) This occasioned great commotions in Siberia, whole towns refusing to take any such oath. *Strahlemburg*, p. 258.

(45) The succession in China is perfectly on the same footing as that introduced by Peter I. into Russia, the emperor of China choosing for his successor that son whom he judges most capable; and in case his own family affords none, he can appoint one of his subjects whom he looks upon as best qualified. *Du Halde's China*, Vol. II. p. 16.

mogeniture,

mogeniture, was set aside, and the nomination of the heir to the crown, left to the reigning monarch), explicitly and punctually to prescribe what turn the succession to the crown was to take, if no previous regulations had been concerted. And this not being done in the ordinance of Peter I. the death of a monarch without naming a successor, must naturally be productive of doubts and difficulties. Let us only take a cursory view of the occurrences in the ensuing times, and these will sufficiently shew us the many inconveniencies arising from this famous law. The emperor Peter I. himself appears to have fluctuated concerning the person of his successor. His last illness, which he probably did not look upon to be mortal, quickly proved so; and death surprized him before he could make any disposition. This put the great men to a stand about a successor. A strong party declared for Peter; but the empress Catharine, by means of prince Menzikoff, gained over the officers of the guards and the clergy, and thus was proclaimed empress (*p*), on the very day her husband expired. Thus the law-giver had no sooner breathed his last than the defect of his law shewed

(*p*) Voltaire's Hist. of Russ. Tom. II. ch. xvii.

itself, a person ascending the throne whom he had not nominated (46), and who, in herself, had no right to it. But a circumstance of still greater importance, and a most dangerous precedent, was, that the regiments of guards now, for the first time, came to understand that it was in their power to impose a sovereign on the empire, and they have since eagerly closed with every opportunity of shewing their weight. The empress Catharine had, in her will, settled the succession on her grandson-in-law Peter II. son to the unhappy Alexis (47); and in case of his dying without heirs, on her two daughters Anne, dutchess of Holstein,

(46) It is indeed generally thought that the emperor declared his spouse successor on his death-bed; and Weber, Vol. III. p. 5. says so expressly; but he himself immediately after relates, that she made sure of the regiments of guards, to whom she did not omit donations, and by these measures obtained the crown. Her very manifesto makes no mention of nomination. Weber, Vol. III. p. 10. Voltaire, who drew his relation of these circumstances from very good sources, count Bassewitz's private Memoirs, gives pretty much the same account; adding, that in the consultations which were held for form sake, the archbishop of Pleskow declared that the emperor had said the evening before the empress's coronation, "I would have her crowned, that she may reign after me." Voltaire, Tom. II. cap. xvii.

(47) It was matter of great wonder that Catharine did not nominate one of her daughters her immediate successor; but she was diverted from this by Menzikoff, who had a great ascendant over her, and who even then was meditating to become the young emperor's father-in-law, and thus regent of the empire, during his minority. Weber, Vol. III. p. 80, 82.

and

and Elizabeth, with their issue, successively; and after them, on princess Natalia, sister to Peter II (48). The emperor Peter II. died without making any regulations concerning the succession (49). By the empress Catharine's will, the crown was to have devolved on the young prince of Holstein, Charles Peter Ulrick, whose mother was then dead; but instead of paying any regard to this will (50), the senate and great men proceeded to an election, alledging that the male line of the reigning house being extinct, a regent was to be sought among the female descendants of czar Iwan, as elder brother to Peter I. Accordingly they chose his younger daughter Anne, dutchess dowager of Courland; overlooking, for reasons of state, the elder sister Catharine, married to Charles Leopold, duke

(48) An extract of this will is to be found in Rouffet, *Supplém. au Corps Diplom.* Tom. II. P. II. p. 188. It was likewise printed separately in 1727, but in a very faulty manner.

(49) He notified by a publick edict of the 4th of August, 1727, that the manifesto for the new settlement of the succession, with all other instruments relating to his father's case, should be collected together and publickly burnt. *Haven.* Part I. cap. xii.

(50) Count Osterman was, in the manifesto published by the empress Elizabeth at her accession to the throne, and in the sentence pronounced against him, accused of having secreted the empress Catharine's will. But the contents of this will, which procured Peter II. the throne, must have been very well known to all the great men of the court, especially having been printed abroad.

of Mecklenburg (9). This was the second time of a person's ascending the throne without having been named by the deceased monarch, and excluding Peter I's grandson by his eldest daughter, and his younger daughter, though the empress Catharine's will was in her favour, which afterwards occasioned a great revolution. The empress Anne sent for Elizabeth Catharine Christina, daughter to her eldest sister the dutchess of Mecklenburg, which Elizabeth afterwards took the name of Anne, was married to Anthony Ulrick, prince of Brunswick, and looked on as the presumptive heiress to the crown. This raised the greater wonder that the empress before her death, instead of declaring her the successor, nominated her son John, an infant of two months, by the name of John III. and this wonder was still greatly increased at her naming the duke of Courland regent of the empire during the minority of the young prince (51). So singular an arrangement of the succession could not but weaken and unhinge the

(9) Weber, Vol. II. p. 182.

(51) And that with no less power than the emperor himself could have had; so far that, in case of the young emperor and his brothers who were to succeed him, dying without issue, he, together with the cabinet ministers, the senate, and the field-marschals, might choose a new emperor.

new government; for, besides placing a minor, an infant, on the throne, which renders a guardianship or regency indispensable, though always and especially in large dominions accounted a great evil; what might raise greater apprehensions was, that the mother of the young emperor, who in respect of his right to the crown, could have none but through her, was not only absolutely and for ever excluded from the sovereignty, but even from the guardianship and regency during her son's minority. This could not but touch her to the quick, and indeed it prompted her to meditate a revolution, and precipitate the regent from that high fortune to which he had been raised on her unjust humiliation; and this she soon effected (52). Hereupon she took

(52) In the sentence pronounced against the duke, "the first charge was, that during the empress Anne's last illness, he had thought of nothing but securing to himself the administration of the Russian empire during the emperor's minority, to the exclusion of his very parents; and with this view, not only incessantly importuned the sick empress to commit the regency to him, but likewise persuading her at first little disposed to any such thing, made use both of the power which he then enjoyed, and all manner of intrigues and artifices to compass his ends." Whereas in an account published by the duke at the accession of the empress Elizabeth, concerning his being appointed regent, and many other circumstances appertaining to it, he avers, that he had for a long time declined the repeated offers of the regency, and might be said to have been, as it were, forced to accept of it. But how far this account is

on herself the government by the title of Great Princess; and in order to fix herself in it, and for the greater dignity (53), wanted to be proclaimed empress. Before this could be done, princess Elizabeth, assisted by the guards, placed herself on the throne (54), an undertaking, greatly facilitated by the tottering condition into which the government had been brought by the ordinance of the empress Anne. For had she conferred the succession, or at least the regency, on her sister's daughter, instead of John her infant son, that princess's power and dignity would have stood on a more solid base. She had indeed easily, and without any great stir, excluded the duke of Courland from the regency; but this very event might give princess Elizabeth to see, that it would be no difficult work to seat herself on the throne, having a right to it by birth, and her mother the empress Catharine's will; and the event fully verified the conjecture. Elizabeth nominated for her successor Peter, the young duke of

genuine, and the many anecdotes in it to be relied on, must be left to every one's judgment.

(53) This is mentioned in the empress Elizabeth's manifesto of the 28th of Nov. 1741.

(54) The empress, in her manifesto of the 25th and 28th of Nov. 1741, says, that she had ascended the throne at the request of all her loyal subjects, and particularly of the regiments of guards.

Hol-

Holstein, her elder sister's son, and who, as such, had a nearer right than herself; and, on her decease, he accordingly ascended the throne; but after holding it scarce half a year, he was tumbled from it by a sudden revolt, in which the regiments of guards were the chief actors, as they had been in the promotion of his predecessor.

All these great and in some measure violent revolutions were consequences of the law of Peter I. for altering the mode of succession. And if, according to the opinion of some (*r*), his drift herein was to exclude his grandson Peter II. from the crown, and bring in his children by the second venter, he miscarried; for immediately after his decease they were kept out of the throne by the empress Catharine, by her nominating again Peter II. and still farther by the election of the empress Anne; and this for above the space of sixteen years. If princess Elizabeth at length got possession, she owed it entirely to her prudence and courage, with some mixture of good fortune. This circumstance, of one branch of the imperial family being excluded or driven from the throne by another, hath been productive of parties, the excluded having their adherents, who are ever at work

(*r*) De Real, Part I. Tom. II. p. 722.

to bring about a revolution. Such a fluctuating state of affairs weakened the government, and put into the hands of the regiments of guards the very dangerous power of setting up and pulling down the sovereign, as has been done more than once, very easily and without bloodshed; and these successful instances may occasionally be productive of the like convulsions. The consideration of these and other inconveniences would almost incline one to think, that the arbitrary nomination of a successor does not suit so well with the security of the reigning prince or the public tranquillity, as a regular succession in the royal family established by law, as that of Denmark.

S E C T. XVII.

It farther appears that in the course of these resolutions the Russian empire has been principally destined for the fair sex, having in the forty-one years since the death of Peter I. been possessed by four czarinas, and three czars; the former swayed the scepter with great reputation and felicity; the latter all together held it but about four years, the two last were uncommon and sad instances of the instability

Remark on
the female
government
in Russia.

bility of human affairs even in the most exalted stations.

S E C T. XVIII.

Guardian-
ship and re-
gency dur-
ing the mi-
nority.

As by the law of Peter I. the nomination of the successor entirely depends on the sovereign's will, no less are the guardianship and regency referred to him (55), and likewise the determination of the minority (56):

S E C T. XIX.

Fundamen-
tal laws.

The czarina Catharine directed in her will, among other particulars, "that no person should ever sit on the throne of Russia who was not of the Greek religion, or who already held a crown (57)." This article the empress Elizabeth expressly mentions and repeats in the manifesto, which she published on her accession to the throne (s);

(55) The empress Catharine I. appointed her two daughters, and the duke of Holstein, jointly with the ministers of the cabinet-council, to be guardians and regents during the minority of the emperor Peter II. but this appointment was not observed.

(56) The empress Catharine I. settled the majority of Peter II. at his entrance into his seventeenth year; and by an order of the empress Anne, the regency was to continue till John III. arrived at the same term.

(57) This is mentioned in the eighth article of the said will, with this addition however, that "such an heir to the crown of Russia should be allowed to appoint one of his children to the succession; and that on his making a public profession of the Greek religion, he should be received and acknowledged as the undoubted sovereign of Russia.

(s) New Fama Europ. Part LXXIX. p. 646.

and

and when she determined to confer the succession on the duke of Holstein, her sister's son, he was obliged previously to profess himself a member of the Greek church, and likewise to decline the crown of Sweden, which had been offered him about the same time. This shews that the empress Catharine's appointment is one of those obligations to which a Russian monarch is a subject, and consequently a fundamental law; and herein indeed consists his sole obligation, unless the indivisibility of the empire be reckoned such; since, though not the subject of any particular law, it has the sanction of ancient custom, having been invariably observed from the time of John Basilowitz.

S E C T. XX.

The most ancient sovereigns of Russia ^{Title.} stiled themselves Walliki Kniaes, i. e. great prince of Wladimir, or Novogrod, or Moscow (58). Basil Iwanowitz first took the title of czar (59) and monarch of all the Russias. (60); John Basilowitz stiled

(58) Halberstein, p. 15, 17. Russia having formerly been divided into several principalities, every great prince bore the title of that of which he was more immediately sovereign.

(59) This word in the Sclavonian Bible is always used to signify King.

(60) Stralenburg, however says, that John Basilowitz was the first who took that title, on his conquest of Casan.

himself czar of Casan, Astracan, Siberia, great prince of Moscow, Wladimir, and Novogrod, lord of Pleskow, ruler (61) and sovereign (62) of all the Russias (*t*). The title which Alexis Michaelowitz gave himself in a letter to Frederic William, elector of Brandenburg, was great lord, czar, and great prince of all the Great, Lesser, and White Russias (63), sovereign of Moscow, Kiow, Wladimir, Novogrod, czar of Casan, czar of Astracan, czar of Siberia, lord of Pleskow (*u*). This title continued with little alteration till the year 1721, when Peter I. being, on occasion of the glorious peace concluded with Sweden at Nyfstat, requested by the senate and clergy to take on him the title of Emperor of Russia, jointly with the surname of Great and of “Father of his Country (64),” stiled himself according-

(61) In the Russian language *Powelitel*, a word of the same import as that of *Imperator* in Latin, namely, a Commander.

(62) In the Russian *Samoderschetz*, which has the same meaning as *Autocrator* in Greek, and *Souverain* in French.

(*t*) Stralenberg, p. 267.

(63) How these names came into the title of the sovereigns of Russia, see above, Sect. VII.

(*u*) Becman, *Synt. Dignit. Illustr. Dissert. III. cap. II. § 3. p. 178.*

(64) Stralenberg says, p. 268, that the archbishop of Novogrod first proposed altering the Russian stile of *Powelitel* into that of *Imperator*; but the latter appears to have been previously used in public political writings, drawn up in Latin. See Reflections on the Question, whether the Stile and Title of

ly (*x*). This new title was readily acknowledged by Prussia, the United Provinces, and Sweden; whereas other European powers, particularly the emperor (*y*), France, and Spain, raised great difficulties about it, till at length, under the empress Elizabeth, all Europe (65) acknowledged her, except Poland (66) and the pope (*z*) (67).

Emperor can be given to the Czars of Russia, without Prejudice to the Dignity of the Emperor, and the Holy Roman Empire, the most Christian King, and all Free States.

(*x*) Weber, Vol. II. P. III. p. 6.

(*y*) Ceremonial de Russie dans le Ceremonial Diplom. de Rouffet. Tom. II. p. 625.

(65) The emperor and empire gratified Elizabeth with the title of empress in the year 1747, France in 1745, and Spain in 1759, but the two last had procured Reversalia, that this title should make no alteration in the ceremonial; yet on their requiring the like Reversalia, she refused; but on the 21st of November 1762, she made a declaration to all foreign ministers that the title of empress should cause no alteration in the usual ceremonies between courts. Hereupon those of France and Spain made a counter-declaration, that though their courts would likewise give the empress that title, yet should any of the empress's successors require any thing contrary to the established usages of rank and precedence, they would that instant alter their address, and no longer give Russia the title of Imperial Majesty.

(66) The king had long ago acknowledged that title, but the republic could not be brought to it till 1764.

(*z*) Voltaire's Hist. of Russia, &c. Tom. II. ch. xv.

(67) As Peter I. assuming the title of emperor made a great noise in Europe, not a few writings were published pro and con, and an account of them may be seen in Buder's Biblioth. Hist. Sal. ch. xxxiii. § vi. a letter from the emperor Maximilian I. to czar Basil Iwanowitz, found among the records of Moscow, giving him the title of emperor and sovereign of all the Russias, was printed at Petersburg in 1718.

The whole tenour of the title since this alteration is : emperor and monarch of all the Ruffias, fovereign lord of Mofcow, Kiow, Wladimir, Novogrod, czar of Cafan, Afracan, and Siberia, lord of Plefkow, great prince of Smolensko, duke of Efthonia, Livonia, and Carelia, of Twer, Jugoria, Permia, Wiatka, Bulgaria, and other territories, great prince of the low country, of Tſchernichow, Refan, Roflow, Jaroflow, Bieloſero, Udoria, Obdoria, and Condi-
nia ; emperor of the whole northern country, lord of the province of Iweria, of the czars of Carthalin and Gruzin, of the princes of Rabardin, Circaffia, and Gorifch, likewise prince and fupreme ruler of many other provinces.

In negotiations with the Afiatick powers, the title is fomewhat altered, and more adapted to the oriental ftile (68).

S E C T. XXI.

Arms.

The firft arms of the fovereigns of Ruffia ſince their profeffion of Chriſtianity were three circles within a triangle ; but

(68) In a manifeſto published in Perſia, in the year 1722, Peter I. ſtiles himſelf, “ Emperor of all Ruffia, and monarch of the Eaſt and Northern empires and countries, “ lord from weſt to ſouth, and of many other kingdoms and “ lordſhips, &c.”

having, after the demolition of the city of Wladimir, removed their residence to Moscow, they began to use the particular arms of that city, ruby, a horseman pearl. Demetrius the great prince added the dragon pursued by the horseman, in commemoration of a signal victory obtained over the Tartars (a). John Basilowitz I. marrying with Sophia the princess of Greece, she took the arms of the Roman empire, the spread eagle (69), which has been retained ever since. Thus the arms of Russia are Sol, a spread eagle crowned, Saturn; with a sceptre Sol, in its right claw; and in the left a monde of the same. On the eagle's breast is a shield, Mars, with a St. George, Luna, killing the dragon, for the principality of Moscow. On the right wing are the three shields of Astracan, Novogrod, and Kiow. On the left, likewise, three, with the arms of Siberia, Casan, and Wladimir. The shield is surmounted with a close crown, and round it the collar of the order of St. Andrew. On the great seal

(a) Strahlenberg, § 268.

(69) So says Lomonossoff, § 29. but others will have John Basilowitz II. to have first born these arms in the year 1540, from an imagination of his that the three first Russian princes Rurick, Sinau, and Truwor were descended from the emperor Augustus. But, however, groundless this may be, it is not improbable that the spread eagle alludes to the eastern empire, to which the Russians lay some claim.

of the empire, the shields of the other provinces form an oval round the eagle (*b*).

S E C T. XXII.

Coronation. Agreeable to a custom of great antiquity, the Russian monarchs are solemnly anointed and crowned; this office was formerly performed by the patriarch, with many religious ceremonies and prayers. The modern sovereigns were clothed with a very rich robe by the principal bojars, who, at the same time, put on the czar's head a cap richly decorated with jewels and pearls (70); but this has lately been superseded by a crown of inestimable value: at the coronation of Peter I. in 1721, he himself put it on (*c*); and when he ordered his spouse Catharine to be crowned, a ceremony which was never seen before, he himself held the sceptre and crowned her; on which the archbishop of Novogrod delivered her the monde; but the emperor held the sceptre all the time, and afterwards she was anointed with the consecrated oil (*d*). The

(*b*) Weber, Vol. II. p. 180, 183.

(70) No other ensigns of royalty are used. See the description of the coronation of the czar in Olearius's Travels into Muscovy and Persia. Book III. ch. xiii.

(*c*) Weber, Vol. II. p. 34.

(*d*) See the description of this coronation in Rouffet's Ceremonial Diplom. Vol. II. p. 627. Likewise Voltaire's Hist. Vol. II. chap. xvii.

coronation of the empress Anne was accompanied almost with the like ceremonies, except that the archbishop, after placing the crown on her head, put the monde, and the sceptre likewise into her hands (e). The succeeding coronations have been conducted pretty much in the same manner. As to the rest, the Russian monarchs take no oaths at their coronation, nor make one single promise. Since the extinction of the patriarchate, the inauguration is performed by the archbishop of Novogrod, and always in the capital.

S E C T. XXIII.

The sovereign's eldest son the presumptive heir to the crown, used to be named czarowitz, i. e. the czar's son. But since the death of the unhappy prince Alexis Petrowitz, this appellation has been discontinued, and his son Peter, with the succeeding heirs to the crown, have been entitled Great Prince.

Title of the presumptive heir.

S E C T. XXIV.

The capital of the empire of Russia is Capital. Moscow, built in the twelfth century, and in the fourteenth made the sovereign's re-

(e) A description of it is to be found in the Ceremonial de Russie, § iii. in Roussel.

fidence.

fidence. It is not less than twenty-two English miles in circumference, being the largest city in Europe; but at the same time not very populous (71). It lies in a delightful plain, and the river Moscow, which waters part of it, has given it its name, as formerly to the whole country and the people. It is divided into four circles, one successively including another. The first or inmost is called Kreml or Kremelyn, i. e. the citadel, in which is the czar's palace, which was built in the fourteenth century by the great prince Demetrius Iwanowitz; several churches, the arsenal, and other publick buildings: it is environed with walls and towers of a considerable height and breadth, as also with a lined ditch. The second circle, called Kitai Gorod, i. e. the Chinese town, is the trading part, and particularly for Chinese commodities: this likewise has its walls and towers. The third circle is distinguished by the name of Beloi-Gorod, or the White City, from the white wall which encloses it: as the fourth is called Semlenoi-Gorod, the Earthen City, being encompassed only with a rampart of earth. All the buildings in the first and second

(71) Voltaire's Hist. of Peter the Great, Vol. I. ch. i. gives Moscow 500,000 inhabitants, which certainly is too much. Dr. Busching makes them only 150,000.

circles, are entirely of stone; in the third they are chiefly of wood; and in this is the house-market, where wooden houses may be purchased ready made. The fourth has few or none but wooden houses. Round these are several slobodes or suburbs, which have perfectly the appearance of villages, the foreign or German suburb excepted, which the Russians call *Isnafemskā o Nometfska-Sloboda*, and is by much the best built. At a little distance from them lie several convents, and some imperial seats; among which *Preobræschenskoi*, *Semnowskoi* and *Ismailow* are remarkable from the three regiments of guards bearing their names. The city of Moscow has suffered terribly by the inroads of the Tartars, but much more by frequent conflagrations; so that there are several waste spots in it (*f*). But what has chiefly contributed to its decline was the removal of the court to *Petersburg*.

This city lies partly on the island formed by the Neva at its issue into the Gulph of Finland. Peter I. having in the year 1702, made himself master of fort *Noteburg*, now called *Schluffelburg*, and in the following year, of the town of *Nieschanz*,

The emperor's residence.

(*f*) See the Description of this city in *Weber*, Vol. I. p. 132, 153.

began to erect on one of those islands a fortification and some buildings (72), but only of wood, being then uncertain of keeping possession. After the defeat of Pultawa, the war taking a very advantageous turn in his favour, his fondness for navigation, and a desire of perpetuating his name, put him on building a city, which he would make his residence; and with such activity was the work carried on, that a place, which had only two poor fishermen's huts, in a short time became a large and splendid city. Its increase and prosperity were greatly promoted by the orders given to every noble family to build a house there, and to great numbers of trades-people and artificers to remove thither; likewise by the Archangel trade being transferred to it; and lastly by the emperor making it his residence, and that of the senate and all the great offices (73). The fort, which, at first, was intended only as a fence to the place against any attacks from the Swedes, was afterwards inclosed within the city, and

(72) The first house Peter I. built with his own hands; but it being very small, and for the singularity of the thing, it is kept within a larger. Haven, Part I. c. iii.

(73) The Russians were not at all pleased with this removal of the court; and, indeed, the inconveniencies of Peterburg are by no means small, lying at the very extremity of such vast dominions, and in no very plentiful country. Strahlenberg, p. 244.

at present stands in the centre, where it serves for a large and secure prison (*g*). Petersburg is reckoned to consist of 8,000 houses, the greater part wood, and contains 130,000 inhabitants (74), most of whom are natives of Russia, though with a considerable mixture of almost all European nations, particularly Germans, and even some Asiatics, as Georgians, Armenians, Persians (*b*). This city, considering its situation, is a wonder; the ground was very low and marshy, and the building clogged with inexpressible difficulties; so that no prince with less ardour in executing his enterprizes, or less power over his subjects, could have accomplished his design. But no sooner had he formed the resolution, than multitudes of Russians, Tartars, Cossacks, Calmucks, Finland, and Ingermanland peasants, some of whom had 800 or 1000 English miles to travel, were got together

(*g*) Voltaire's Hist. of Russ. &c. P. I. ch. iii.

(74) Voltaire, indeed says, that the inhabitants are reckoned at 400,000, but this is an enormous excess. According to the bills of mortality of 1765, the burials of males were 4185. Now allowing one out of thirty to die every year, though that be something too little for such a city, it will make only 125,550; so that 130,000 is the greatest round number that can be reckoned. Mr Haven, about twenty years ago, computed the inhabitants at something above 40,000, exclusive of the court and troops. If this computation be right, Petersburg has exceedingly increased its inhabitants since that time.

(*b*) Haven, P. I. c. iii.

from

from all parts of this vast empire, to fill up the low swampy soil with trees, stones, and earth. In this toilsome work, in which, at first, not only tools and implements, but even provisions were wanting, the country being then quite wild and uncultivated; above 100,000 men perished in their full vigour of age (*i*). At so dear a rate were laid the foundations of Petersburgh (75).

In the neighbourhood of Petersburgh are several imperial palaces, as Oranienbaum, Peterhof, Mon Plaisir, with others; likewise the magnificent convent of St. Alexander Newskoi (*k*).

S E C T. XXV.

Court.

The court and manner of living of the former czars was pretty much in the Asiatic manner. They seldom appeared abroad, and to procure access to them was a matter of great difficulty. But Peter I. put an end to all this troublesome constraint; and modelled his household after that of other European princes; in which, however, his wars and other undertakings

(*i*) Weber, Vol. I. p. 447. Vol. II. p. 175:

(75) The loss of so many lives was partly owing to the passage over the Ladoga-lake, as frequently obstructed by contrary winds, and partly to the want of care and probity in those who had the inspection of the work. Weber, Vol. I. p. 447.

(*k*) Haven, P. I. c. iii.

requiring great sums, he had always an eye to œconomy. But under his successors the household and its expences have been greatly encreased (76); so that at present the Russian court for magnificence is equal to any in Europe (l). It has a great number of officers, the principal of whom is the grand marshal; next to him are the master of the horse, the lord steward, lord chamberlain, with twelve real and some honorary lords of the bed-chamber, grooms and pages, the great huntsman, the master of the ceremonies, the master of the court ceremonies (77), the chief physician, a physician, a court physician, a court surgeon, &c (m). The rank of all officers, civil, military, and belonging to the court, was settled in 1722, by an ordinance of Peter II (n), which has been constantly observed, except when some of the principal court officers have obtained a grant for a

(76) The annual expence of the household under Peter I. was between 50 and 60,000 rubles; whereas in the empress Anne's time, the bare salaries amounted to 110,000, and under Elizabeth to 200,000 rubles, and the whole expence to a million. Busching.

(l) Haven, Deel. II. c. 12.

(77) These officers should be very knowing in ceremonies, having to do not only with European courts, but likewise those of Asia, as the Turkish, Persian, and Chinese, who are all extremely precise in these matters.

(m) Haven. Deel. II. c. xii.

(n) Id. Ibid. c. xiv.

higher rank than was allowed them in the ordinance (*o*).

S E C T. XXVI.

Orders of
knight-
hood.

The orders of knighthood, of which Russia has three, were likewise first instituted by Peter I. In 1698, he founded that of St. Andrew, the ensign of which is a gold St. Andrew's cross enamelled azure, with the Apostle fastened on one side of it. At the four ends of the cross are the letters S. A. P. R. "Sanctus Andreas Patronus Ruffiæ," and over it is likewise a crown of gold, enamelled azure. On the reverse is the Russian spread eagle surmounted by a crown in flames. On its breast and round the neck is a serpent, with a Russian inscription signifying "Pro Fide et Fidelitate." This order is worn at a broad light blue ribbon, with a star on the knight's coat. After Peter's demise a set of laws was drawn up for it, and habits of ceremony appointed (*p*).

Peter I. in honour of his consort Catharine, and in commemoration of her prudence and address in the dangerous campaign near the Pruth in 1711, instituted

(*o*) Haven. Deel II. c. xiv. p. 429.

(*p*) Weber, Vol. III. p. 161.

an order of her name. Its ensign is a shield, Sol, enamelled, Mars, with a saltier cross, Luna, and on the reverse, St. Catherine. It is worn at a scarlet ribbon passing from the right shoulder to the left side, on which is an embroidered silver star. This is a female order and conferred only on princesses and other personages of high birth (*q*).

Peter I. besides the sumptuous monastery dedicated to St. Alexander Newskoi, instituted an order of this name, though it was not absolutely settled and confirmed till after the decease of that monarch. Its ensign is a red enamelled cross intersected with eagles, and in the centre the Saint on horseback in enamel. The knights wear it at a scarlet ribbon, and on their coats a star in which are the letters S. A. in a cypher with this inscription “ Principibus Patriæ (*r*).

S E C T. XXVII.

Christianity owes its establishment in Russia to Wladimir I. who received baptism in the year 989: the first teachers being procured from Constantinople, the Greek church was the branch of Christi-

State of religion in Russia.

(*q*) Weber, Part I. p. 57.

(*r*) Id. Part III. p. 38.

anism which obtained, and has been the national profession ever since. The public service is performed in the Sclavonian language, their Bible likewise is in that language, the Russian being supposed not capable of affording a good translation (78). They pay devotion to saints, and particularly to St. Nicholas, whom the commonalty, in some respects, equal to God himself; they admit only painted images in their churches (79). Their fasts, of which they have four in the year (*s*) besides two fast days every week, they observe much more strictly than the Romish church (*t*). They formerly began the year on the first of September as the epocha of the creation, from which they date their chronology; and so lately as 1700 reckoned 7208; but both those usages were abolished by Peter I (80).

(78) Weber, indeed says, that Peter I. had made preparations for printing the Bible in the Russian language, and that every head of a family was to purchase a copy; but this design does not appear to have taken effect.

(*s*) Perry, p. 359.

(79) For they hold cast or carved images forbidden, and a Greek priest could not be persuaded to buy an excellent piece of Titian, the relief being such as to give it the appearance of a sculpture. Addison's Dialogues of the usefulness of antient medals in his works, Vol. III. p. 165.

(*t*) Perry, 370.

(80) Perry, 377. This computation of time apparently owes its origin to the artificial epocha for observing the pass-over, adopted by the Greek church in the Vth century, and the beginning of which it had settled at the 5508 years be-

Since

Since the sixteenth century the Russian church has been divided, a party having separated from it, for which they have been nick-named Roskoltſchiki or Roskolniki, i. e. Apostates or Backsliders; but they call themselves Starowerſci, i. e. Primitive Believers. The controversy between them and the orthodox chiefly turns on indifferent matters, except their holding civil government to be contrary to Christianity, and living in a brotherly community. Formerly they were violently persecuted and many thousands of them burnt and put to various kinds of death, till Peter I. ordered that, whilst they did not spread their tenets among the other Russians, they should not be molested, only double taxing them and distinguishing them by a bit of square red cloth on the back of their coats (*u*).

Some endeavours have been used for bringing the Russian church to an union with that of Rome: with this view pope Gregory XIII. sent the famous Jesuit Anthony Posſevin to czar John Basilowitz II.

fore the Christian æra; but posterity being wholly ignorant of such matters, imagined these 5508 years related to the creation of the world, and as such they have been received by the Russians. This is what had occasioned the great excess of years in their chronology. Scaliger, de Emendat. Temp. Lib. V.

(*u*) Strahlenberg, cap. viii. Haven, Part II. cap. xv.

but he returned as he went (81). Peter I. being at Paris in the year 1717, the Sorbonne presented to him a proposal for that end, accompanied with an epistle to the Russian clergy, representing the difference of doctrines between the two churches to be but inconsiderable, and acknowledging the pope's supremacy to be the chief point. The Russian bishops returned a very complaisant answer, withal excusing themselves "that they could not enter on
 " that affair the patriarchal chair being
 " vacant and they consequently wanting a
 " head, without whom they were not to
 " meddle with any matters of impor-
 " tance; that, however, they would, with
 " the czar's permission, write to their"
 " orthodox oriental patriarch, whose seat
 " is the foundation of the whole structure
 " of the church," "and not fail of com-
 " municating his answer to the Sor-
 " bonne (x)." Here the affair ended (82).

(81) Of Possévinus negotiations on this point with the czar he himself gives an account in his *Comment. De Reb. Moscovit.* p. 31—37.

(x) Both letter and answer are to be seen in Haven, Part II. cap. xvii.

(82) So far was Peter I. from acknowledging the pope's power, that to expose it, he had one of his court-fools elected pope; and after fuddling him and all his college of cardinals, caused them to walk publickly in procession. After the death of this knias papa, for so he was stiled, the ceremony of

S E C T. XXVIII.

As the Russian church received its doctrine and discipline from Constantinople, ^{Russian} ^{clergy.} so it has always been under the inspection of the patriarch of that city, who placed a metropolitan over Russia, first residing at Kiow, afterwards at Wladimir, and lastly, at Moscow. This prerogative the patriarch of Constantinople retained till the time of czar Basil Basilowitz, when the Russian clergy took on themselves to chuse their own metropolitan, which they could the more easily do, the dignity of the patriarch of Constantinople having extremely declined since the taking of that capital by the Turks. At length Jeremiah the patriarch of Constantinople, who, in 1588, was come in person to Moscow, declared Job, at that time metropolitan of Russia, patriarch of all Russia, and he was acknowledged as such by the other Eastern patriarchs of Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem: his successors, however, were to be every time confirmed by the patriarch of Constantinople. This subordination continued till the reign

this ludicrous election of a pope was three times repeated; and this was all the good the Sorbonne got by its endeavours to unite the churches of Rome and Russia. Voltaire's Hist. Tom. II. c. ix.

of czar Alexis Michaelowitz, to whom Nikon, the then elected patriarch of Russia, a haughty and ambitious man, represented that the Constantinople ratification was not at all necessary, and accordingly it was not applied for; but this Nikon afterwards beginning to act the pope in Russia, and assuming to himself a great authority in worldly affairs, the czar held a general convocation of the Greek and Russian churches, who, besides rejecting the patriarch Nikon's extravagant demands, deposed him. His successor, nevertheless, retained so much authority as to be very troublesome to the czars (83). Peter I. took advantage of the decease of patriarch Adrian in 1699, to rid himself of that incumbrance, not permitting the clergy to choose a successor; and in the year 1719, he appointed an ecclesiastical commission for the administration of church-affairs, giving it the name of the Sacred Synod, or the Most Sacred Supreme Synod. It consisted of a president, who was always to be the sovereign, a vice-

(83) The patriarch was the first person in the empire next to the czar. All the clergy were subject to him, and he had full power in church-affairs, only recommending to the czar the execution of what he had thought fit to order. Olearius, Book III. c. xxviii. At the procession on Twelfth-day, the czar used to help the patriarch on horseback, holding the bridle during the procession; and even with this Peter I. had at first complied. Weber, P. II. p. 57.

president, and twelve spiritual and some temporal members (*y*). He afterwards made several very salutary arrangements for this ecclesiastical council, all tending to the suppression of abuses, and to the improvement of church discipline and real religion (*z*). Thus was the patriarchate totally abolished, and the church lands belonging to it put under sequestration (*a*).

The principal of the Russian clergy are the metropolitans, of whom there are only two, Kiow and Tobolsk. After these come several archbishops and bishops, both under the common name of Archirei, and they are twenty-seven in number. Amidst these several titles of metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, all the difference lies in rank, they not being in the least subordinate one to another, but all immediately under the sacred synod, and every one exercising within his diocese the power committed to him by the new ordinances (*b*). The number of monasteries for both sexes is very great (84); the heads of the former

(*y*) Strahlenberg, cap. ix.

(*z*) Haven, Part II. cap. xv.

(*a*) Weber, P. I. p. 16.

(*b*) Haven, P. II. c. xv.

(84) By an ordinance of Peter I. no man is to be admitted into a convent under fifty years of age; but this was afterwards so far altered, that a male or female turned of thirty might embrace the monastic state. Weber, P. II. and Vol-

are called Archimandrites, i. e. abbots, or Igumenen, i. e. priors. The abbess or prioress of a nunnery has the name of Igu-menja. All these compose the upper clergy. The lower clergy are the Protopopen (85), i. e. first or archpriests; the Popes, i. e. priests, the first of whom are likewise called Archi-Jerei, and the latter Jerei; and the Deacons, who minister at the public worship. Tho' the upper clergy must be unmarried, the priests, on the contrary, are bound to marry, and with a virgin. On the death of the wife, he loses his office, and his only alternative is to go into a monastery, or quit the ecclesiastical state; and in the last case, he is at liberty to marry again. The common priests have so little learning, that if they can read it is sufficient (86). The monks, who are like-

taire's Hist. Vol. II. ch. xiv. Another order was published under Peter I. limiting the number of convents to fifty, and of monks in each to fifty-two. But this gave great offence to the clergy, and accordingly never was put in execution. Weber, P. 111. In the year 1761, the convents for men in the Russian dominions, exclusive of several lesser houses, were reckoned to be 479, and those for women to be 74. The number of monks exceeded 7000, and the nuns 5000; the priests, and other inferior church-officers, amounted to 67,873.

(85) This title is given by way of pre-eminence to the priests of the archiepiscopal and episcopal churches.

(86) Yet the Russian clergy seemed formerly to have applied themselves to casuistical divinity. Haven, P. II. c. xvi. gives us a conference between two of them, entirely on cases of conscience, of which I shall only mention one as a specimen.

wife

wife deplorably ignorant, lead a very austere and retired life; they are not allowed flesh, butter, cheese, eggs, nor any other food of the animal kind (*c*). Both the regular and secular clergy are possessed of large estates (87), but not exempt from taxes. As for the common priests, they are subject to heavier imposts than other men (*d*).

The Russians used to hold that orthodoxy was to be found only in their church, and looked on other sects of Christians as little better than heathens; so that all converts to their religion were baptized a second time (88). But, on becoming better acquainted with the world, they have laid aside such narrow notions, and new converts now are not re-baptized as before (*e*); they even

“ Q. What is the duty of a person who intends to marry ?”

“ Anf. He who intends to marry shall, for the space of forty, or at least eight days before, abstain from all carnal conversation with other women.” These are the bridegroom’s duties; but what is required from the bride, the casuist has not determined.

(*c*) Haven, P. II. c. xv.

(87) In the beginning of the great Northern war, Peter I. sequestrated all the lands belonging to bishops and monasteries; but in 1711, they were restored to the former, and some of the latter afterwards obtained their possessions. Weber, P. I. p. 46. The empress Elizabeth at length caused the remainder to be restored to their former possessors.

(*d*) Weber, P. I. p. 46.

(88) The many ceremonies and circumstances which, according to the Russian casuists, are to be observed in it, may be seen in Haven, P. II. c. xvi.

(*e*) Id. cap. xvii.

always

always shew themselves very friendly to other sects ; and instead of persecuting, allow strangers an unmolested freedom of conscience.

S E C T. XXIX.

Toleration
of religion.

Accordingly, there are in Russia, besides the established church, many other sects ; for the Lutherans have not only retained a perfect freedom for their religion in Livonia, Esthonia, and Finland ; but both they and the reformed have long since, been tolerated in Russia itself, and publicly perform their worship in several towns without the least molestation (89). The Roman Catholics are favoured with the like indulgence, except having Jesuits (90). The Armenian Christians have a bishop and public churches at Astracan (f), and

(89) The first church the Lutherans built was at Moscow, under John Basilowitz II. and, as they greatly increased, so that several congregations of them were formed at different places, Peter I. allowed them a superintendent residing at Moscow. See Dr. Busching's Account of the Lutheran Congregations in Russia. Vol. I. Piece II. of his Dissertations and Treaties.

(90) For in 1719, a misunderstanding having arisen between the courts of Moscow and Vienna, the Jesuits were banished the empire, and the cause assigned in a manifesto addressed to the Catholic Church was, "That their dangerous machinations, and their fondness to be meddling with politics, was sufficiently known." Weber, P. I. p. 362.

(f) Strahlenberg, c. viii.

the Unitas Fratrum or Moravians, have likewise obtained freedom of conscience (g).

Besides the several sects of Christians, the vast empire of Russia has great numbers of Mahometans, and still more pagans (91): the sacred synod has not only instituted a "society for propagating the Christian religion," but actually sent missionaries for converting infidels; and with such good success, that, according to the public accounts, thousands or rather hundreds of thousands have been brought over to the Russian church (92).

Conversion
of Maho-
tans and Pa-
gans.

S E C T. XXX.

Literature and the sciences were, during the greater part of the last century, totally

State of the
sciences.

(g) The patent granted to them by the empress Catharine II. in 1764, may be seen in Busching's Dissert. &c. Vol. I. Piece I.

(91) Mr. Strahlenberg, cap. viii. computes the former to be the thirtieth part of the inhabitants of the Russian empire, and the other at three times that number.

(92) Near 30,000 Mahometans and Pagans are said to have been baptized in the first half of the year 1748, within the government of Casan, Nischnowogrod, Woronetz, and Orenburg. An astonishing number, indeed, in so short a time! but not at all impossible, if the reverend missionaries went to work the same way as Philophei, archbishop of Tobolski, with the heathen Tartars of Siberia, causing them who would not come of their own accord, to be hunted by dragoons, and those who would not voluntarily be baptized, to be thrust by violence into the water; and those who got to land again, had a cross tied about their necks, and so were made Christians. Gmellin's Journey through Siberia, Part IV. p. 344.

unknown in Russia, so that Peter the Great may be said to have first introduced them. He founded several schools for instructing youth in Latin and other languages (*b*); and afterwards instituted the academy of sciences at Petersburg, which, however, was not opened till 1726, after his death (*i*). It consists of three classes, the mathematical, physical, and historical (*k*); and soon acquired a considerable reputation, which it has ever since maintained. The empress Elizabeth may be considered as its second founder, having considerably augmented its income, and thus removed the difficulties which sometimes had obstructed its pursuits (93). The academy is connected with an university and grammar schools, so that it not only publishes collections of the memoirs composed by its members, but likewise books of instruction for the Russian youth. These, and their other works have certainly been the foundation of much good, but this alone is not sufficient to cause any considerable propagation of learning in this vast empire. It requires more semina-

(*b*) Weber, P. III.

(*i*) Id. Ibid. p. 52, 60. See Haven, P. I. cap. vi. p. 82.

(*k*) For its discipline. See Haven, P. I. c. iv.

(93) She augmented the usual revenue of the academy with an annual sum of 53,300 rubles, for maintaining several artificers whom it wanted, and for the use of its library and museum.

ries of all degrees, which hitherto have been very much wanting in Russia (94); the university of Petersburg, and that founded at Moscow in 1755, by the empress Elizabeth, being the only two universities within its circuit. As for the college at Kiow, it is only a seminary of divinity for the Ukraine clergy (1); and literature it seems can promise itself little increase from this foundation (95). Though

(94) Of this the emperor Peter III. was so sensible, that he intended to have founded more schools; and his principal view herein was, that the Russian clergy might emerge from their gross ignorance, and go through a regular course of studies, as those of other countries.

(1) Haven, P. I. c. vi. P. II. c. xvi.

(95) Haven, P. II. cap. xvi. mentions the following title of a book published by a Kiow professor, in 1745. *Philosophia Aristotelica ad mentem Peripateticorum tradita: Ejus sacratissimæ majestatis hereditariæ, nostræ magnæ dominiæ, augustissimæ imperatricis Elizabeth Petrownæ totius Rossicæ fideli subdito sacrorum, Rossiaci, nec non Romani, imperiorum illustrissimo regis comiti, excellentissimo totum per imperium Jager magistro actuali, ejusdem sacratissimæ majestatis Ober-Camer. Hero, Leyb. compagnia laitenantio, variorumque ordinum cavaleo, ejus regis comitis illustrissimæ excellentiæ Alexio Hryhoriewicz Rozumowsky, anniversaria ejusdem tutelariorum recordatione dedicata. Sincero extractui e libris Latinis atque Polonicis typo mandatis de antiqua nobilissimorum dominorum Rozumowskiorum genealogia innixa: in quatuor documenta divisa; et publicis in academia Mohylo Zaboroufsciana Kioviensi disputationibus approbata: per humilimum eorum servum nec non Dei exoratore, academiæ Kioviensis præfectum, ejusdemque philosophiæ per sexennium ordinarium professorem, Hieromonachum, Michaelem Kozackzynski oblata: deinde per auditorem suum, Græcæ, Hebraicæ, nec non Germanicæ dialectorum discipulum, nobilem dominum, Gregorium Szezerbacki defensa. Kiovia, præfide eodem, qui supra, præfecto Michaele.*

the sciences cannot be said to be in their full bloom, yet by the present course of things they will attain to it in time (96), the propagation of them being a work rather of centuries than of a few years. This is manifest from the literary history of all European nations, who have risen from their rudeness and ignorance, by very slow steps. The Russians must be allowed to have done great things in a short time, and they have already among them several profound scholars, and even geniuses who do honour to their country (97).

The fine
arts.

Russia was likewise indebted to Peter I. for its acquaintance with painting, sculpture, architecture and the other fine arts; and provision was made in the academy of sciences for youth to be instructed in them gratis (*m*). But the empress Catherine II.

QuisqVe fat esse potest fat CertVs re sVper, ista.
 QuoD. BozVmoUski Ch. stirps generosa fUlt.
 Leopoli, Typis Colleg. Societatis JEsu. Anno. 1745.

The treatise itself, Mr. Haven says, is quite of a piece with the title.

(96) Of this Peter I. had great hopes; he once said that the sciences being driven from Greece, their antient mansion, had spread themselves in the other countries of Europe, but would one day visit Russia, and from thence return to their primitive home. Weber, P. I. p. 10, 11.

(97) Among these may be particularly mentioned prince Cantimir, who died at Paris in 1744, as ambassador from Russia. Besides his Satires, which have been translated into several languages, he has written a celebrated poem, called the Petriad.

(*m*) Haven, P. I. c. vi.

in

in the year 1764, founded a particular academy for painting, sculpture, and architecture, connecting with it a school for education (98): and from the patronage of these monarchs both the arts and sciences, in the advancement of which they shew no less judgment than zeal, may promise themselves a far more speedy and extensive progress than was ever known in the Russian dominions.

S E C T. XXXII.

The Russians had formerly very few Laws. written laws, and those chiefly concerned only penal cases (99). In all others, the judges pronounced sentence as they thought fit, and sometimes according to the impulses of friendship or enmity towards the parties. At length in the year 1647, Alexis Michaelowitz had a set of laws composed by chosen men of all ranks, and afterwards

(98) It admits sixty boys, not above six years of age, who are instructed in three different classes for the space of nine years; and 60,000 rubles are annually paid from the treasury for the support of this academy.

(99) Such are the laws given so early as the XIth century, by the great prince Jaroslaw Wladimirovitz, to the city of Novogrod, and which are to be seen in Busching's Dissertations; as likewise those published under the title of Ordinationes a Joanne Basilio magno duce, A. M. 7006.

pub-

published by the title of *Soborna Ulofienia*, i. e. Unanimous and Universal Right (100) (*n*): these and the several ordinances of his successors, particularly Peter I. (*o*), are the rules for the courts of justice. The latter had employed the most capable persons that were to be procured, to draw up a new and complete law book, but the finishing hand has not been put to it (1). The present czarina, Catharine II. has ordered a new code of laws to be drawn up, which is actually in hand; and that it may have all possible perfection, a council consisting of deputies from all the provinces of the Russian dominions is established at Petersburg: several eminent foreigners have likewise been invited thither to assist with their ex-

(100) These laws baron Mayerberg, the emperor Leopold's envoy, translated into Latin, and added them to his *Iter in Moscoviam*, and a German translation from it has likewise been published at Dantzic.

(*n*) Olearius, B. III. c. xx.

(*o*) Haven, cap. ii. Part II.

(1) See Voltaire's *Hist.* Tom. II. ch. xiii. he, indeed, at the same time, says, that the empress Elizabeth finished the work which her father had begun. But other accounts, of equal authority, contradict this; and the Supplement to the newest Political History of Russia, affirms, that the emperor Peter III. caused the *Codex Fridericianus* to be translated into the Russian language, in order, together with the Russian laws, to make it a book of statutes for the empire: now this would have been quite unnecessary, had Peter I. and the empress Elizabeth before provided it with a complete Codex.

perience

perience and learning. Her majesty's instructions to this council, which have been printed, do honour to her penetration and wisdom, as likewise to her humanity.

Livonia, Esthonia, and Finland, being conquered provinces, retain their former laws, agreeable to the stipulation made for them by the crown of Sweden in the treaty of peace. In the Ukraine the Magdeburg law obtains (*p*).

S E C T. XXXIII.

Such disputes among the peasants as cannot be composed by their elders, are brought to the decision of their lords stewards. But in case the lords of the estates are themselves at law with one another, the complaint is carried to the way-wod's court, where he sits as judge with a few assessors. If either of the parties acquiesce not in his sentence, an appeal lies to the governor's court, and from this again to the upper court in Moscow, and from this to the senate, and lastly to the monarch himself, who decides it finally in the cabinet council.

Courts of
justice.

The magistrates of towns administer justice within their districts, and from these

(*p*) Haven, Part II. c. ii.

the first appeal lies to the country court and so gradually up to the throne itself (*).

In ecclesiastical and matrimonial causes the first pleadings are before the bishop of every diocese; and the second, which is the last, before the sacred synod.

When a person of rank has brought himself under the law, a commission of the principal civil and military officers is appointed to try him (q).

Livonia, Esthonia, and Finland, which, in virtue of the treaty of peace, still enjoy their laws and civil constitution, have at Petersburg an upper court, called the German college of justice, where they who conceive themselves aggrieved by the under court in those provinces, apply for a revision; from this lies an appeal to the senate, and lastly to the cabinet.

Most of the corporal and capital punishments are very severe, and unknown in other parts of Europe. Among the former are the batog, the knut, cutting out the tongue, flitting the nostrils, banishing to

(*) Bribery, and other great abuses, were some time ago so notorious in the Russian courts of justice, that the empress Catharine II. issued a very remarkable and strict ordinance against those practices.

(q) Haven, Part II. cap. ii.

Siberia (2) : some of the latter are hanging up by the ribs, impaling, burying alive ; these last, however, are now superseded by breaking on the wheel and beheading.

Persons sentenced to death for crimes against the state forfeit lands and effects to the crown ; this is always the case, though life should happen not to be touched.

S E C T. XXXIV.

The Russians used to bring into the field Land-forces. armies of above 100,000 men ; but these, instead of being regular forces kept in constant pay, were only a posse of the nobility, gentry, and other subjects. The first steps towards the improvement of the Russian military discipline were made by John Basilowitz, who invited many foreign officers into his service (s). In this he was imitated by his successors, and particularly by Alexis Michaelowitz who formed eight regiments of regular foot with all foreign officers (t). The principal part of the Russian forces consisted of the Strelitzes, i. e. soldiers, a body of 24,000 foot, being as a guard to

(2) Some were sent thither to work as slaves at the mines and fortifications ; but others, and all of any rank, as state-prisoners : these were strictly guarded in fortified houses, where they often underwent great hardships, Part I. cap. xii.

(s) Haven, Part II. cap. viii. p. 150, 151.

(t) Strahlenberg, cap. v. p. 213.

the czar and a garrison to the city of Moscow. They had great privileges which made them insolent, so that if things did not go just according to their fancies, a mutiny was the consequence. They particularly resented the military alterations made by Peter I. and took occasion of his absence during his first journey in 1698, to raise a dangerous insurrection, but were defeated by general Gordon, and the greater part of them taken prisoners. Peter I. made use of this opportunity for totally disbanding the Strelitzes, after causing some thousands of them to be executed. Hereupon he gradually formed all his troops both cavalry and infantry after the German manner in their uniforms, exercise, and discipline. The Russians being from their early years inured to hard living, and habituated strictly to obey those who have a command over them, make hardy and good soldiers when well officered. The foot (x), however, are preferred to the horse (y). The present Russian forces consist of regulars and irregulars, the former compose the empress's guards, the marching regiments, and the regiments of the gar-

(x) Parry, p. 442.

(y) Weber, Part I. p. 28.

rifons and governments ; all these are both horse and foot.

Military establishment of the Russian empire.

In the beginning of the year 1762, the following list of the Russian forces was delivered to Peter III.

G U A R D S.	Men.
Troop of the emperor's life guards	
(3) — — —	364
I. The Preobraschonkoi regiment, together with the company of bombardiers — —	3,720
II. The Semonowskoi regiment	2,556
III. Ismailowskoi regiment (4)	2,536
Horse guards — —	1,376
Total	<u>10,552</u>

(3) This corps the empress Elizabeth formed out of the grenadiers of the regiment of guards, who distinguished themselves in her advancement to the throne. She likewise created them nobles, and with some considerable privileges. Peter III. on his accession to the government disbanded the troop of life-guards, and the empress Catharine II. formed out of it a corps, called the Chevalier Garde, of sixty men.

(4) The life-guards, were by Peter I. their founder, honoured with considerable distinctions. The officers used to be called to council in important affairs, especially on the trial of state-criminals ; even the sentence of death pronounced against the unhappy Czarowitz Alexis, is signed by

	Men,
Cadets who are all young gentlemen or noblemen — —	822
Matrosses, engineers, gunners, and others in the artillery department	34,032
Cuirassiers, 6 regiments, each 945 men	5,670
Horse grenadiers, 6 regiments, each 960 — — —	5,760
Dragoons, 18 regiments, each 1140, and 2 regiments of 1251	23,022
Foot grenadiers, 4 regiments 2501 men — — —	10,004
Infantry, 46 regiments each 2626 men — — —	120,796
Garrisons along the Baltick 20 regiments, of 1281 men each, and 1 battalion 753 — —	26,373
Garrisons in the empire 24 regiments of foot and 11 regiments of dragoons of different complements, together with some additional battalions and squadrons —	48,958
Militia, 24 regiments of different complements — —	26,598

several captains, lieutenants, and ensigns; and since that time the great share they had in the late revolutions, has not a little added to their consideration.

Troops

Troops on duty at the public offices	Men.
of the state — —	2,584
Huffars, 8 regiments of different	
complements — —	9,593
Other light troops, 7 regiments,	
some consisting of 4 or 5000	
men	20,242
	<hr/>
Total	345,006
	<hr/>

Irregular troops, Cossacks, Cal-	
mucks &c.	261,172
	<hr/>
In all	606,178
	<hr/>

The irregular troops all serve on horseback, with officers of their own nation. The Ukraine Cossacks are commanded by their Hetman, who is of their own choosing, but must be confirmed by the czar, though this post sometimes continues vacant, as at present.

The chief posts in the Russian army are, the field-marshal general, the general in chief, the lieutenant-general, major-general, and brigadiers.

The pay of a field-marshal general is 7000 rubles and 200 rations worth	—	—	—	Rubles.	1140
General in chief	—	3600	80		456
Lieutenant-general	—	2160	50		285
Major-general	—	1800	40		228
Brigadier	—	840	20		171

Each of the said officers is farther allowed a certain number of Dentschicki, i. e. servants, furnishing them only with clothing (z).

The pay of the regimental officers differs according to the difference of the troops.

	In the marching regiments.	In the garrison regim. along the Baltick.	The other garrison and government regiments.
	rubles.	rubles.	rubles.
The pay of a colonel is	600	400	200
Lieut. col.	360	240	120
Major	300	200	100
Captain	180	120	60
Lieutenant	135	90	45
Ensign	90	60	30

Each of these is likewise allowed a certain number of rations, and one or more servants (a).

(z) See the History of Russia in the Mod. Univ. Hist. Vol. XXXV. p. 175.

(a) Busching's Geography, article of Muscovy.

The yearly pay of a private man is reckoned at 16 rubles 72 copecks; but 4 rubles 63 copecks is all he receives in money, the greater part being deducted for provisions, clothing, cartridges, musket-flints, the surgeon, &c. (*b*). This shews that the Russian army, in proportion, costs the least of any troops in Europe.

The officers of the guards, artillery, and engineers, are paid according as they rank with the officers of the marching regiments; and a private man in the guards has double pay (*c*).

In recruiting the regular troops, for the guards, the best men are removed from all the other regiments. For the marching and Baltick garrison regiments, recruits are raised throughout the empire; 125 men and sometimes more or less, being obliged to furnish a soldier. The other garrison and government regiments are recruited by soldiers, who are no longer able to serve in the field; and the hussars are foreign volunteers (*d*).

Every nobleman or gentleman having two or more sons was, by an ordinance of the empress Anne, obliged to make soldiers of them, except one; and they were to serve

(*b*) Busching's Geography, Article of Muscovy.

(*c*) Haven, P. II. cap. viii.

(*d*) Id. Ibid.

twenty-five years from their twentieth year (*e*); but this severity was abolished by Peter III.

A cadet-academy was founded at Peterburgh in 1732, for training up 240 Russian and 120 German young gentlemen, in several sciences, languages, and exercises. But it is sufficient that they qualify themselves for civil employments without being bound to enter into the army (*f*).

The care and recruiting of the army, exclusive of the guards, belongs to the war-office, in which are several departments, the commissary general's office, the artillery office, the commissary of war's office, the paymaster's office, the cloathing office, the provision office, and the accomptant's office.

S E C T. XXXV.

Fortifications.

The frontiers of the Russian empire being so very extensive, and many of its neighbours savage and turbulent, it is under a necessity of keeping up a great number of fortified places: it is reckoned to have twenty-four on the Baltick, nineteen towards Poland, Crim-Tartary, and Turkey, besides several irregular fortifications on the Ukraine line, fifteen in Sibe-

(*e*) Haven, P. II. c. xii.

(*f*) Busching's Geography.

ria, and nine on the Wolga, together with the Tzariziski line, of ten redoubts; and which, like the Ukraine line, is always guarded by a good number of troops (*g*). Petersburg, Moscow, Novogrod, and Riga have very large arsenals, and filled with all sorts of stores, naval and military.

S E C T. XXXVI.

The Russian navy, like the army, is a Navy. work of Peter the Great, and not less an object of admiration, being, as it were, sprung from nothing, and in a very short time. He returned from his first journey in 1698, with some sea-officers and ship-builders from England and Holland; and set them to work about a fleet on the Don, intending to employ it against the Turks on the Black Sea. Having, in the northern war obtained some settlements on the Baltick near the Neva, he immediately began to build a large fleet, which in a few years became so considerable as to be able to appear at sea, and fight the Swedes. In the Persian campaign in 1722, he had likewise ships fitted out on the Caspian Sea, for supporting his land enterprizes. A little before his death, he had given orders about

(*g*) Haven, P. II. cap. viii.

a survey in Kampschatka, for fit places to make sea ports. His views were so extensive that in all parts of the ocean which washed his dominions, he was for having a fleet; but the loss of Asoph, and the Persian provinces, totally quashed the Russian marine in the Black and Caspian Seas. In the Baltick, however, it has always maintained its reputation. In the year 1746, and it has not been much encreased since that time, the navy consisted of,

- 24 Ships of the line.
- 7 Frigates.
- 3 Bomb-ketches.
- 2 Prames.
- 4 Packet-boats.

Which, in the whole, carry 2042 guns. Peter I. likewise caused some gallies to be built, and made use of them with great advantage on the coasts of Sweden. At his decease the number of them amounted to 160, but in 1746, only 102 remained.

The great officers of the Russian navy are one admiral-general, three admirals, three vice-admirals, and three rear-admirals. The number of men in the said year, amounted to 10,097, exclusive of 7305 matrosses, and some thousands of marines (*b*).

(*b*) Haven, P. II. cap. ix.

Peterburgh has an academy for 360 sea-cadets, as a nursery for the lower officers: sailors, however, are very scarce; for the Russians doing little business by sea, and consequently bringing up few seamen, the natural decrease of men in the fleet is, (except the sons of the old seamen at Cronstadt) chiefly supplied with peasants, who, like the military recruits, are draughted out of the country. But with timber, and all other naval stores, Russia abounds.

The admirals and other officers of the fleet are paid according to the rank, which they hold with the generals and officers of the land forces. When the seamen are not employed at sea, they have an allowance of provisions like the soldiers, with some money, though something more than the latter.

According to the establishment made by Peter I. the annual charge of the Russian navy, including the building and fitting out of ships and the subsistence of the seamen, is about one million two hundred thousand rubles (*i*).

The whole marine is under the inspection of the admiralty, and this consists of four departments. The general naval com-

(*i*) Haven, P. II. c. ix.

missary's office for the provision and payment of the seamen, the store office, which has the care of the magazines and the fitting out of ships; the ship-builder's office, and the ordnance office.

S E C T. XXXVII.

Ports for the
ships of war.

Most of the ships of war lie at Cronstadt, and the others are divided between Revel and Archangel. The place for the gallies is Petersburg. A great defect in the harbour of Cronstadt is the freshness of the water, in which ships decay sooner than in salt water, so that they seldom last above twelve or fifteen years, and this impairment is further hastened by the ice and snow in the long winters (6).

Petersburg has two docks, one for the ships of war and the other for the gallies; the third is at Archangel. A dock has been constructed at Cronstadt for refitting ships which, for the breadth and depth of its stone canal, is looked on as a prodigy of art (7). Here, as at Petersburg and

(6) Another cause of the Russian ships doing so little service is said to be the Casan oak, as less compact and hard than other oak; and of this the Petersburg ships are built. Haven, Id. Ibid.

(7) This expensive canal was begun by Peter I. but not finished till the reign of his daughter Elizabeth, who herself opened it, and with great solemnity consecrated it on the 7th of August 1752.

Archangel, are large magazines, with all forts of stores.

S E C T. XXXVIII.

The oldest pieces coined in Russia are coins. small, irregular, but mostly oblong, pieces of silver, called Copecks, i. e. lance, the impression being a horseman with his lance (8). They were at first of pure silver, but an alloy being afterwards added, their intrinsic value has been pretty much lowered. Under czar Michael Feodorowitz, fifty of them made a specie-dollar (*k*), but under his son Alexis, the dollar was worth 100. The other silver coins were denga, or denusch, two of which made a copeck; and poluschks, i. e. half denusch, or quarter copecks: afterwards were likewise coined altins (9), which went for three copecks; and grieves or pieces of ten copecks. A hundred copecks the Russians called a ruble (10); but this was only a

(8) This impression is on most of them; but some likewise have the name and title of the great princes and czars of the respective times.

(*k*) Olearius, Book III. ch. x.

(9) Altin is a Tartar word signifying six, this piece being equal to six denusches.

(10) This name comes from the Russian word Rubit, which signifies to hew, or cut; for copecks being their only money, they made use of a tally in reckoning, and at every hundred made a large notch in it, which was called Ruble. Haven, Part X. p. 307.

name

name and not any actual coin. Czar Alexis coined the first rubles, which were equal to a specie-dollar (11), but afterwards the standard of them being made worse, their value sunk below the specie-dollar (*l*). Gold pieces were struck only on solemn occasions, as a victory or a marriage (*m*). Formerly the goldsmiths made the money, and exchanged coined silver for an equal weight in bullion on a moderate deduction being allowed for the work (*n*); but the czar, in process of time, assumed the coinage to himself, and had mints at Moscow, Novogrod, Tweer, and Plefcow (*o*).

The Russians reckon by rubles and copecks; and their present current coins are,

I. In G O L D.

Imperials equal to	—	10 rubles.
Half imperials (12)	—	5
Ducats	—	2 30 copecks.
Andrew ducats	—	2
Golden rubles	—	1

(11) Even foreign specie-dollars were stamped with the Russian arms, St. George killing the dragon; and like a ruble, were equal to a hundred copecks. Haven, Part I. cap. x.

(*l*) Ibid.

(*m*) Olearius.

(*n*) Herberstein, p. 57.

(*o*) Olearius, p. 223.

(12) These two pieces were first coined by the empress Elizabeth.

II. In S I L V E R.

Rubles	—	100 copecks
Half (poltinnick)	—	50
Quarter (pol. poltinnick)	—	25
Grievcs	—	10
Altins	—	3
Grosches	—	2
Single copecks (13).		

III. In C O P P E R.

Pieces of five and one copeck, denuschkes or half, and polushkes or quarter copecks.

A ruble is worth about one dollar four grains, according to the Leipzig standard; or three marks two schillings, Hamburg currency.

The empress Elizabeth, in 1757, had particular silver pieces coined for Esthonia and Livonia, but to go only in those countries. These are,

Livonians	—	96 copecks.
Half	—	48
Quarter	—	24

and afterwards pieces of 4 and 2 copecks.

(13) These, and the two foregoing, are no longer coined, neither are they current.

The inscriptions on the Livonian money are Latin; whereas, on all the above mentioned coins, they are in Russian. As to the Russian standard it must be observed, that the pound is divided into ninety-six parts called Solotnic, of one of which a third makes a loth, or half an ounce; and the pound is to that of Cologne as seven to eight; consequently is one eighth lighter (*p*). In the year 1745, the proportion between the intrinsic and extrinsic value of the Russian coin was, that a pound of ducat gold contained ninety-three solotnics of pure gold, and three solotnics of copper, and out of it were coined 118 pieces. A pound of Andrew ducat gold contained only seventy-five solotnics of fine gold, and twenty-one solotnics of copper, and made a hundred pieces. A pound of silver for rubles, half and quarter rubles, contained seventy-seven solotnics of silver, and nineteen solotnics of copper, and of this were coined fifteen rubles, thirty-four copecks. In the pound of silver for grieves were seventy-two solotnics of fine silver, and twenty-four solotnics of copper; and of this likewise was coined to the amount of fifteen rubles eighty-four copecks (*q*).

(*p*) Haven, Part I. cap. II.

(*q*) Id. cap. x.

Of copper money, pieces of five copecks have been coined, since Peter I's time, and at the rate of forty rubles from a pud, i. e. forty pounds, that is, six times above the real value of the copper; the consequence of which was, that foreigners counterfeiting this light money, the empire was over-run with many millions of it. The empress Elizabeth therefore lowered this coin in 1745, to four; in 1746, to three; and in 1747, to two; and lastly, in 1758, called in the whole (*r*). The pieces of five and one copeck, now current, are of a better standard, a pud being coined only to the amount of eight rubles.

The proportion of gold to silver was in the said year 1745, as 1 to $13\frac{5}{9}$, and that of silver to copper as 1 to 91 (*s*).

The value of the ducats coined in Russia from 1712 to 1746, amounted to 800,000 rubles; the copper denufchkes and polufchkes coined between 1730 and 1746, made 1,800,000 rubles; and all the several kinds of silver money coined from 1719 to 1746, made collectively $35\frac{1}{2}$ millions of rubles: the quantity of silver money circulating in the empire in 1746, was estimated at 12 millions (*t*).

(*r*) Haven, P. I. c. x.
ibid.

(*s*) Id. ibid.

(*t*) Id.

S E C T. XXXIX.

Revenue.

The great power of the throne over its subjects is of a three-fold advantage to it, personal services, supplies of provisions, and pecuniary taxes. Among those who are obliged to serve the crown are the Cossacks, Calmucks, and several hordes of Tartars, who receiving orders from court, appear on horseback; the recruits for the fleet and army, which are furnished by citizens and farmers; likewise, all kinds of handicraftmen, particularly carpenters, masons, smiths, labourers; which they are to furnish for building new fortifications, and other works (14). The provisions consist of a certain quantity of rye-meal, and groats, which the farmers deliver into the empress's magazines, or pay the value in money; this is applied to the support of the troops, and the payment of other servants of the crown: the annual quantity of meal requisite for those services is estimated at nine hundred thousand tons (u).

(14) Weber here observes, Part I. p. 39, that this is, as it were the abyss, in which infinite numbers of Russian subjects are swallowed up; and that several persons who very well knew what they said, affirmed, that the building of the citadel of Taganerow, on the Black-Sea, cost above 300,000 lives; and that while the works of Petersburg and Cronslot were carrying on, a still greater number were swept away by hunger and distempers, proceeding from the fenny soil.

(u) Haven, Part II. c. x. Weber, Part I. p. 34.

The pecuniary taxes paid by the subjects are head money, by the Russians called *poduschnoia dengi*, i. e. Soul money. This all males pay from infancy to decrepid age; townsmen and peasants having lands of their own, likewise the crown-farmers, annually pay 120 copecks; the other peasants but seventy (15).

2. Ground rent of houses not standing on white, i. e. free ground.

3. The tax of the secular clergy, who, besides the personal taxes for themselves and their children, pay six copecks for every house in their parish.

4. Taxes on baths in private houses, for which peasants pay every year five copecks, citizens and priests a ruble, rich traders and nobles three rubles.

5. Imposts on mills, ponds, fisheries, bee-hives (16).

The funds of the other incomes are,

6. The public baths, which are a monopoly of the crown.

7. The *kabacks*, i. e. victuallers, who pay annually a certain sum for the licence of selling beer, brandy, and mead.

(15) This capitation-tax was introduced by Peter I. in lieu of a kind of tax on houses, paid annually by town and countrymen, and was of less produce. *Id. ibid.*

(16) Esthonia, Livonia, and Russian Finland, in lieu of all these imposts. pay annually certain sums, the total 61,000 dollars. *Weber, Part I.*

PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

8. The duties on imports and exports.

9. Mines, the mintage, and other regalia.

10. Fines and payments out of the sale of confiscated goods.

11. Crown lands, which are variable by reason of frequent grants, resumptions, and sequestrations.

12. Exclusive trade of rhubarb (17), tobacco, potash, weedash, Archangel tar, train oil, stock fish, salmon, seal skins, pearls, isinglass, iron, salt, Siberia furs, whatever is above the value of ten rubles, with all other goods of which the crown is for assuming the trade to itself.

These are the ordinary incomes, but when not answerable to the public expenditures, extraordinary imposts are laid in proportion to the exigencies (x). The nations in the remote parts of Siberia pay their tribute in furs, money being there extremely scarce.

The pecuniary incomes formerly were but small, and are said to have amounted to no more than five millions of rubles in the time of czar Michaelowitz (y); at present they are estimated at fourteen, or fif-

(17) This was formerly a considerable article, but is much lessened since other European nations have brought rhubarb from China.

(x) Weber, Part I. p. 42.

(y) Strahlenberg, cap. v. Haven, cap. x.

teen millions (18); and even this seems but a small matter for so vast a monarchy, yet is it sufficient for the ordinary disbursements.

The customs and victualling-licences are farmed, whereas the other duties are levied and accounted for.

The emperor Peter I. assigned all these several incomes to certain services, as the crown lands and monopolies for the court, the capitation-tax for maintaining the troops, the kabacks, or victualling-licences with a part of the capitation-tax for the life-guards and the admiralty &c. and, on this account, the moneys, as brought in, are paid into the treasuries of the several offices.

S E C T. XL.

Russia is far from being sufficiently cultivated, many large tracts lying waste. The Ruffians formerly used in their wars to bring away the inhabitants of the enemy's country, and form them into colonies. Michael Feodorovitz removed some thousands of Finlanders, his son Alexis a mul-

^{Want of}
agricul-
ture.

(18) Voltaire, Hist. Vol. I. chap. ii. says, that in 1725, the revenues amounted to thirteen millions of rubles; others about the same time make them above twenty millions, Strahlenberg, ch. x. But Haven, P. II. cap. x. about the year 1746, reckons them only at eight millions.

titude of Poles, and Peter I. on taking Narva and Dorpt, sent above six thousand men and women to cultivate deserts in the very heart of Russia (*a*). Her majesty the present empress Catharine II. has offered very advantageous conditions to foreigners settling in her dominions; so that agriculture and every part of husbandry begins to be followed much more than ever; and for the promotion of those so useful sciences, a society has been instituted at Petersburg, in imitation of other countries (19). But the deficiency in point of agriculture is in part owing to the indigence of the people, to the want of towns for the farmer to dispose of his grain and other goods (*b*), and to the dispiriting oppressions of the peasants, which are such, that it is not uncommon for them to quit house and home (*c*), as they can no where fall into a worse condition.

S E C T. XLI.

Manufac-
tures.

So little was Russia acquainted with manufactures, that it had not so much as the

(*a*) Weber, Part III. p. 291. Strahlenb. cap. v. p. 214.

(19) This society, to which the empress has been pleased to grant a charter, has already published the first part of its memoirs, with this title 'Works of the Free Economical Society for the Advancement of Agriculture and Husbandry in Russia, Petersburg. 1765.'

(*b*) Haven, P. I. c. iv.

(*c*) Weber, P. I. p. 50.

most common handicrafts; and even at this time, the peasants build their own houses, make their own wheels, carts, sledges, ploughs, harnesses, cordage, and even weave their linen and woollen stuffs for apparel. Their shoes they make of bast, and can put their hands to masonry and other business. But as herein they follow only their own natural knowledge, so their works have neither art, regularity, or strength; and this is the case with almost every thing that comes out of the hands of their workmen, though looking tolerably well to the eye (*d*). On this account it was that Peter I. brought a considerable number of foreign artificers and workmen into the empire, that his subjects might improve by their example. He likewise set up manufactures and factories. Accordingly Moscow, Petersburg, and some other large towns have their silk, woollen, and linen looms; and in many places one meets with lime and brick-kilns, potteries, glass-houses, paper-mills, soap-houses, armouries, and other working shops, furnishing a great part of the necessaries which Russia used to purchase of foreigners (*e*). They have, however, from

(*d*) Haven, P. I. c. v.

(*e*) *Ib.* p. 68.

time immemorial been in possession of a particular and highly advantageous manufacture, the making of Russia leather, in which no European nation can rival them (20).

S E C T. XLII.

Inland
trade.

The Russian empire consisting of so many countries different in situation and quality, and inhabited by so many nations, the inhabitants must naturally carry on a great trade with one another, by reason of the necessaries which they reciprocally stand in need of; and this trade is greatly facilitated by the many rivers and other inland waters. And Peter I. to improve this conveniency and open a communication between all the inhabitants of his dominions from one end of it to the other, united several large streams by canals. By the Ladoga canal, the navigation betwixt the rivers Wolga and Neva, is secured (21).

(20) Weber, P. II. Making this leather is very troublesome and tedious; the process is to be seen in Haven, P. I. cap. v.

(21) This canal is one of the most celebrated works of the kind in Europe. Peter I. undertook it in 1718, by reason of the dangerous passage on Ladoga lake, and it was not finished till 1730. Mr. Haven, however, says, that as for the danger of Ladoga-lake, the emperor might have saved himself that vast expence, great numbers of ships being seen to take that way, in order to avoid the duty of the canal: but that he did it for the safety of the Russian barks, which,

The

The Wolga and Wolchow (22), are joined by the canal of Twer; and the Wolga, the Moscua, and Occa, by that of Rzwea (23). These large canals, the expence of which was certainly immense, are the means of a correspondence between the Baltick and the Caspian sea, and the three capitals of Petersburg, Moscow, and Astracan, which is accompanied with infinite advantages. And even when the navigation is obstructed by frosts, sledges carry goods from place to place at a very cheap rate.

S E C T. XLIII.

Russia has a great variety of goods for ^{Foreign} foreign trade, as costly furs of sable, blue, black, and white foxes, ermins, hyenas, beavers, lynxes, squirrels, bears, wolves, martins, wild-cats, white-hares, &c. leather, tallow, wax, caviar, stock-fish, salt-fish, train-oil, isinglass, castoreum, Sibe-

in summer bring goods and provisions of all kinds from the southern and eastern provinces to Petersburg, and are not the best sea-boats.

(22) This canal joins the rivers Twer and Mota, the first of which runs into the Wolga, and the other into Illmanlake, out of which issues the Wolcow, near Novogrod.

(23) Concerning these three canals, see Stralenb. ch. ii. where he also mentions three other canals planned by Peter I. partly for opening a communication between the Caspian and the Black-Sea; and likewise between the Frozen-Sea and Onega-Lake. In the two former the work was actually begun, but on account of the many difficulties was given over,

rian

rian-musk, mamont's bones, whalebone, feathers, bristles, hemp, flax, thread, dowlafs, fail-cloth, and coarse linen, callimancoes, matting, timber, pot-afh, weed-afh, tar, pitch, rofin, linfeed-oil; likewise copper, iron, Moscovy glafs, with many other commodities. The Ruffians formerly carried on a great trade with the Hans-towns, chiefly by the way of Novogorod and Plefcow, and afterwards with the Livonians. About the year 1553, captain Richard Chancellor, an Englifhman, being in queft of a north-eaft paffage to the Eaft-Indies, accidentally came to Archangel, which opened a very profitable trade both to the Englifh and Dutch. The Swedes likewise began to trade with the Ruffians on the Neva. But under Peter I. a great revolution happened to the trade and navigation in thefe parts: for, after he had built Peterfburg, he removed the Archangel trade thither; fo that the new town, in a fhort' time, became the moft confiderable ftaple in the whole Ruffian empire. The maritime commerce is chiefly carried on here by foreign merchants (24), and the Ruffians

(24) Half of this trade is in the hands of the Englifh; the Dutch having a quarter, and a quarter the other trading nations. It has been encreafing from year to year, though the foreign merchants, what with the great credit they give

find their account in it so well, that instead of sending any ships of their own, they both import and export in foreign bottoms (*f*). Besides this maritime trade, Kiow carries on no inconsiderable traffick by land with Poland and Silesia; and Smolensko with Poland and Prussia.

The Russians trade with the Turks and Greek merchants in Turkey at Temernicow and Neschin (*g*), and at Astracan with the Persians and Armenians (*b*). Lastly, a trade of great importance subsists with China by caravans, and of which Peter I. laid the foundations by a treaty with the emperor of China. The principal commodity carried thither is furs; and the returns are in cotton and silk-stuffs, green tea, rhubarb, tygers and panthers skins, and toys. This trade was formerly in the hands of the crown, which, however, reaped little benefit by it, by reason of the excessive smuggling and embezzlements: the empress Catharine II. has thought it advisable to cashier the crown caravans, and

to the Russians, and the bad management of their agents, often sustain considerable losses.

(*f*) Haven, P. I. cap. vii.

(*g*) Hanover Miscellanies of Knowledge and Pleasure, 1760. N^o XCIII.

(*b*) Id. N^o XCVIII.

leave

leave the whole Chinese trade open to merchants (*i*).

S E C T. XLIV.

Administra-
tion of state-
affairs.

The conduct of the domestic affairs of the empire is committed to the senate, which was instituted by Peter I. as the supreme council of government and the high court of justice, to which all temporal officers, governors, and courts of justice are subordinate. The chancellor of the empire, and vice chancellor, sit as presidents.

For secret and foreign affairs, the empress Catharine afterwards instituted the privy-council, and the empress Anne, the cabinet, consisting of a few of the principal ministers, from whom the senate sometimes were obliged to receive directions: but the empress Elizabeth restored them to that consideration which they enjoyed under Peter I. Peter III. again threw a great shade over this body, depriving it of any share in state affairs, appointing a conference-ministerium for the conduct of that part of government (*k*). The empress Catharine restored its power, but soon after erected a supreme council, as it was termed, to which she committed

(*i*) Muller's Russian History, Vol. VIII. Collection for the History of Russia.

(*k*) Genealogical and Historical Accounts, P. V. and VI.

the decision of the most important affairs belonging to the senate (*l*).

Spiritual and church affairs come under the cognizance of the Sacred Synod (*m*).

The other great offices are,

The war-office (*n*).

The admiralty-office (*o*).

The foreign-office, which pays the Russian ministers at foreign-courts, the entertainment of foreign envoys who are entitled to it, makes out passés, determines any differences that happen with foreign ministers, and whose province entirely relates to embassies.

The Moscow court of justice, which receives appeals from the inferior courts. Some members of it reside at Petersburg, under the title of "the German court of justice," to which appeals lie from the courts in Livonia, Esthonia, and Finland. It has likewise a consistorial jurisdiction over the Protestants and Papists at Petersburg: but at these trials an ecclesiastic of the defendant's religion is an assessor.

The fiscal-office, which superintends the levying of the crown's incomes, except the capitation-tax and salt-trade.

(*l*) Genealogical and Historical Accounts, P. XXXIII.

(*m*) See above, Sect. XXVIII.

(*n*) See above, Sect. XXXIV.

(*o*) See above, Sect. XXXVI.

The treasury, which has the management of the publick monies, and directs the exchequer in the several issues.

The revision-office, for checking the accounts of all other offices.

The office of trade, the object of which is the encrease of trade, the improvement of manufactures, and the decision of disputes among merchants.

Mine and manufacture-office, which superintends the mine-works, manufactures, and fabricks, and judges in causes relating to mines.

The confiscation-office, for the sale of confiscated effects and levying fines.

The salt-office, for securing the produce of the salt-works, which goes to the emperor's privy purse.

S E C T. XLV.

Government of the provinces.

The government of the several parts of the vast Russian empire, is lodged in stadtholders with a council of regency. In all the provinces, likewise, into which the governments are divided, are waywodes for the administration of justice (*p*), and to take care that the laws be every where observed in their full force (*q*).

(*p*) See above, Sect. XXXIII.

(*q*) Haven, Part II. ch. xi.

S E C T. XLVI.

All that has hitherto been said relating to the constitution of the Russian empire, the arts and sciences, manufactures and trade, the state of its military force by sea and land, is the work of Peter the Great, a monarch who was the admiration of the whole world, and who by his eminent qualities deserved those monuments of national gratitude, which other nations have profusely erected to their princes from vanity and adulation. He had a soul of immense compass comprehending every thing both minute and great. He equally understood the lowest handicrafts and arts, and no less the exalted science of government; he was no less the ingenious carpenter and turner, than the great commander, admiral, statesman, and monarch. It was such a penetrative and pliant genius, with a firmness peculiar to himself, which enabled him to improve his dominions and people: but what heightens our admiration, is his performing such grand designs amidst a long and heavy war and the perpetual din of arms. In a peaceful and tranquil reign he would unquestionably have brought several things to greater perfection: but his many glorious qualities were alloyed with

Eminent
qualities and
praise of Pe-
ter I.

the failing of princes who know their strength and power: a spirit of conquest predominated in him; for he had no sooner secured his acquisitions in the north by a peace with Sweden, than he hastened after larger possessions in the south, and drove the Persians from a considerable country on the Caspian-sea. But his views extended much farther; he meditated the total overthrow of the Ottoman empire by an union with Persia (r). In order to this he secretly laboured to excite an insurrection in the Turkish dominions, by means of the Christians dispersed in those countries, and thus to add the title of emperor of the East to that of Russia (s). Had not the term of his years been cut short so unexpectedly, the consequences of his plans would have shewed themselves, and might have produced a general revolution in Europe; but had he even succeeded in those vast designs, they would not have merited such an encomium as that given to him, in a certain panegyric, on account of the many benefits derived to his dominions and subjects from the more peaceful acts of his administration. “ He was, says the
 “ noble orator, founder of a new empire

(r) Weber, Part II. § 193.

(s) Memoir. de Montgon. Tom. VIII. p. 248.

“ and

“ and the creator of a new people : on his
 “ coming to government he found his do-
 “ minions a mere chaos, and left it a world
 “ full of order, light, and life.”

S E C T. XLVII.

The real interest of the Russian empire Political interest. shews itself in the conduct of the present government. The empress's attention to the population and cultivation of the country, the education of youth, the increase of manufactures and trade, the improvement of all arts and sciences, a due administration of justice in the courts of law, regularity in the finances, and the maintaining of the land and sea-forces on a respectable footing, are measures dictated by sound politicks, and by which the happiness of the empire and the reputation of its monarch have been brought to the highest pitch. Her endowments render her capable of accomplishing what Peter I. had planned ; and in this she will meet with the fewer obstructions, being so very desirous of cultivating peace ; whereas he was taken up with military enterprizes and schemes of conquest. Farther, in her breast it lies to make the peace as profound and lasting as she wishes ; the situation of the Russian empire being, in this respect, so advantageous that it has

no hostilities to apprehend; its frontier neighbours are much too weak to expect advantages from a war; and its only enemies of any strength are the Turks; but the Russian military force is now on a par with them for numbers, and in discipline and martial qualities undoubtedly superior*.

From distant countries Russia has nothing to fear; formerly half an army perished before so much as reaching the theatre of war. Thus Russia is the only state in Europe that has it in its power to be at peace, and can enjoy that happiness, whilst it forbears entering into foreign engagements, which may induce it to take part in distant quarrels.

S E C T. XLVIII.

The Russian monarchs had formerly, but especially since the present century, been often involved in the general differences of Europe, which has given occasion to many alliances, treaties of peace, and other conventions between them and foreign powers; the most remarkable are these,

* This has evidently appeared in the successes of the Russians during the present war with the Ottoman Port, which broke out since the publication of this work in Germany.

- I. With FRANCE (*u*).
- II. With GREAT BRITAIN (*x*).
- III. The UNITED PROVINCES (*y*).
- IV. With DENMARK (*z*).
- V. With SWEDEN (*a*).
- VI. With POLAND (*b*).
- VII. With the EMPEROR and the HOUSE
of AUSTRIA.

Alliances 1. of the 6th of August 1726
(*c*). 2. Of the 26th of May 1732 (*d*).
3. Of the 22d of May 1746 (*e*).

VIII. With PRUSSIA.

1. Alliance of the 4th of August 1717
(*f*). 2. Accession to the peace of Berlin
1742, in August 1743 (*g*). 3. Treaty of
peace of the 5th of May 1762 (*b*). 4. Al-
liance of the 11th of April 1764 (*i*).

(*u*) See chap. i. § lxxxvii.

(*x*) Chap. v. § lxxiii.

(*y*) Chap. vi. § lviii.

(*z*) Chap. vii. § liii.

(*a*) Chap. viii. § liv.

(*b*) Chap. ix. § lviii.

(*c*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. II. p. 131.

(*d*) Rouffet. Supplem. Tom. II. Part II. p. 334.

(*e*) Rouffet Recueil de Traitez, Tom. XIX. p. 46c.

(*f*) Dumont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 490.

(*g*) Rouffet. Rec. Tom. XVIII. p. 44.

(*b*) This treaty has not been made public.

(*i*) Merc. Hist. & Polit. Juin 1764, p. 715.

IX. With

IX. With the OTTOMAN PORTE.

Treaties of peace 1. at Carlowitz Dec. 25, 1698 (*k*). 2. On the Pruth of the 21st of July 1711 (*l*). 3. Treaty of the 15th of April 1712 (*m*). 4. Renewal of the peace on the Pruth of the 3d of April 1713 (*n*). 5. Peace of the 18th of September 1739 (*o*).

S E C T. XLIX.

Historians.

The history of Russia is still a field very little cultivated: the Russians alone, of all the great nations in Europe, have no historian of their own (25), and what foreigners have delivered on that subject is very imperfect (26). The little books of Treurs (27) and La Combe (28), are both of that cast; and in the Universal History, that

(*k*) Du Mont, Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 275.

(*l*) Id. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 275.

(*m*) Id. Tom. VIII. P. I. p. 297.

(*n*) Rouffet. Suppl. Tom. II. P. II. p. 110.

(*o*) This treaty has not been made public.

(25) But they may now soon expect one; counsellor Lomonozoff is employed in a complete history of his country, in the Russian language, and has already published some sheets of it.

(26) The collection intitled, *Rerum Muscovitarum Auctores varii congesti in unum corpus*, Francof. 1600, fol. contains very little properly relating to the history of Russia.

(27) *Introduct. to the Hist. of Muscovy*, published at Leipzig and Wolfenbuttel 1720; it begins no earlier than 1450, and concludes in 1617, with the peace of Stolbo, (a German work.)

(28) *Histoire des Revolutions de l'Empire de Russie*, Amsterdam, 1760; little more than a history of Peter I. for as to

of Russia takes up but a narrow compass (29); so that hitherto it has not been treated of in that amplitude which it may deserve (30).

S E C T. L.

The state of Russia has been described by several foreigners. The ancient by baron Herbenstein (31), the celebrated Jesuit Possévin (32), Neugebauer (33), and Olearius (34); the modern by Perry (35),

Accounts of
the state of
Russia.

the transactions before and since his time, of those the author has made very short work. Professor Joachim of Halle, in the translation which he published in 1761, not only added notes for completing and amending the original, but likewise published a continuation of it, in two parts.

(29) This occurs in the XXXVth Volume of the English original, but it is very faulty, and particularly with regard to modern times.

(30) But Mr. Muller has published excellent accounts concerning the antient, middle, and modern times, which may be of great use to some future historian.

(31) *Rerum Moscoviticarum Commentarii, quibus Russiae & Metropolis ejus Moscoviae Descriptio Chorographicae Tabulae religionis indicatio, modus excipiendi & tractandi oratores, &c. continentur.* Basileae, 1571, fol.

(32) *Moscovia & alia Opera de statu hujus seculi adversus Catholicae Ecclesiae hostes, Coloniae, 1587, fol.* Besides some short accounts of the state of the Russian empire, and the manners of the people, this contains the religious controversies between the Greek and Latin churches; and the author's negotiations towards an union.

(33) *Moscovia, Dantisci, 1613, 4to.*

(34) Account of the celebrated Journey to Moscow and Persia; in the embassy from the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, to Michael Feodorowitz, Czar of Moscow, and Schach Saï, Sophi of Persia, Sleswick, 1663. All that relates to the state of Russia is contained in the xith chapter to the xviiiith of the second, and the whole third book.

(35) *The Present State of Russia, or Moscow, 1717, 8vo.* It has been translated both into German and French. To

Weber,

Weber (36), Strahlenberg (37), Haven (38), and others (39).

this work has been added, as a second part, a Translation of *Relazione Geographica 'storico-Politica dell' Imperio di Moscovia*, par Mari Antonio Pandolfo. (In Milano, 1713. 12mo.)

(36) *Russia reformed*, in which are considered the present ecclesiastical and civil government, the war-office, finances, &c. (a German work.) Hanover, 1739.

(37) *The northern and eastern Parts of Europe and Asia*, containing the whole Russian Empire, with Siberia, and Great Tartary, Stockholm, 1730. 4to.

(38) *Nye og forbrede Esterrätninger om det Russiske Rige II. Deeler*. Kiobenhavn, 1747. 8vo. This is the new edition of a work published long since at Riga, by the title of *Esterrätninger om det Russiske Rige*, which has also made its appearance in German. Copenhagen, 1744.

(39) Among these are the *Lettres Moscovites*, à Paris 1736. The author, who gives himself out to be a native of Italy, but seems rather a Frenchman, has said a great deal of ill of the Russian nation, and committed many errors in the account of their state: he has been confuted in the German translation, and the remarks accompanying it. Farther, the Russian history has a description of the State of that country, prefixed to it in the *Universal History*.

F I N I S.



